

Public Personnel Review

SOCIAL SCIENCES

JANUARY, 1960

Personnel Panorama—1959

Job Evaluation After 50 Years

PPA Award For Merit—1959

Meeting Manpower Requirements of a State Government

**Cost of Unemployment Compensation for State and
Local Government Employees**

Another View of Psychiatric Screening of Police Recruits

**Maintaining Announced Weights of Part Scores on a
Total Examination**

**1959 Business Meeting of the Public Personnel
Association**

Personnel Opinions . . . Personnel Literature

The Bookshelf . . . Around the Personnel World

Journal of the Public Personnel Association

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

The Journal of the Public Personnel Association

Formerly Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada

1313 E. 60th Street

Chicago 37, Illinois

EDITORIAL STAFF

KENNETH O. WARNER, *Editor*
J. J. DONOVAN, *Managing Editor*
SADIE J. DOYLE, *Editorial Assistant*

EDITORIAL BOARD

JOSEPH W. HAWTHORNE, *General Manager, Los Angeles, California, City Civil Service Commission*
PHILIP R. BERGER, *Personnel Director, Alameda County, California, Civil Service Commission*
JOHN D. FOSTER, *Personnel Director, Port of New York Authority*
ANGUS LAIRD, *Supervisor, Florida Merit System*
MISS MAUDE MYERS, *President, Illinois State Civil Service Commission*
B. H. PETERSON, *Personnel Director, City of Vancouver, B. C.*
HARRY F. SMITH, *Director of Personnel, New York State Department of Labor, Division of Employment*

EDITORIAL CONSULTANTS

O. E. AULT, *Director, Planning and Development, Civil Service Commission of Canada*
SCHUYLER HOSLETT, *Vice President, Reuben H. Donnelly Corporation*
JAMES M. MITCHELL, *Director, Conference Program on Public Affairs, The Brookings Institution*
ROLLIN B. POSEY, *Managing Director, College Department, Row, Peterson & Company*
DONALD PRICE, *Dean, Graduate School of Public Administration, Harvard University*
FOSTER B. ROSER, *Personnel Director, Philadelphia Personnel Department*
ED SHELLEY, *Personnel Director, Tennessee Valley Authority*
O. GLENN STAHL, *Director, Programs & Standards Bureau, U.S. Civil Service Commission*
KATHERINE TAYLOR, *Regional Representative, U.S. Health, Education, and Welfare Department, Dallas*
PAUL VAN RIPER, *Professor of Administration, Cornell University*
ARNOLD S. ZANDER, *International President, American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees*

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW is published quarterly, in January, April, July, and October, by the Public Personnel Association, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois. U. S. and Canada subscription rates, \$6.50 per year; foreign \$7.50 per year; single copies, \$2.00, in advance. Second class postage paid at Chicago, Illinois, with additional entry at Brattleboro, Vermont.

POSTMASTER: Send Form 3579 to Public Personnel Review, 1313 East 60th St., Chicago 37, Ill.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
Personnel Panorama—1959	
I. U. S. Federal Service Developments William G. Wendell	5
II. State and Local Developments Keith Ocheltree	12
III. Canadian Federal Developments Jean S. Moreau	17
Job Evaluation After 50 Years Robert F. Milkey	19
PPA Award for Merit—1959	
I. Personnel Administration as a Management Credo . . . Dr. Richard E. McArdle	24
II. The Louisiana Personnel Program Comes of Age . . . William W. McDougall	26
III. The Philadelphia Story Foster B. Roser	29
Meeting Manpower Requirements of a	
State Government Don C. Lawlis and Dr. Preston P. LeBreton	33
Cost of Unemployment Compensation for	
State and Local Government Employees Joseph Krislov	36
Another View of Psychiatric Screening of	
Police Recruits Harry Reiner, Charles J. Setzer, and James McCormack	41
Maintaining Announced Weights of Part	
Scores on a Total Examination Dr. William B. Michael and Herbert Popenoe	45
1959 Business Meeting of the Public Personnel Association . . . Kenneth O. Warner	52
Around the Personnel World—	
Cooperative Supervision: A Technique for the Adaptation of Skills Allan R. Richards	60
Personnel Opinions	65
"What do you think is a reasonable, enforceable policy regarding restrictions on political activities by civil service employees?"	
The Bookshelf	72
"Personnel Administration—Evaluation and Executive Control" . . . "The Moti- vation to Work" . . . "Administrative Vitality: The Conflict with Bureaucracy" "The Executive Overseas" . . . "Executive Development in the Public Service" (An Annotated Bibliography, Library, U. S. Civil Service Commission).	
Personnel Literature	84

Public Personnel Review

The quarterly journal of the Public Personnel Association provides a medium for the publication of factual material and for materials that may represent divergent ideas, judgments, and opinions. The views expressed in articles and other contributions are those of the authors and may not be construed as reflecting the views of the Association or the editors unless so stated.

Subscription Rates. U. S. and Canada, \$6.50 per year; foreign, \$7.50; single copies, \$2.00, in advance. Prices on back issues quoted on request.

All correspondence regarding manuscripts, subscriptions, and advertising should be addressed to the editorial and business offices of *Public Personnel Review*, Room 456, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois.

Progress Through Experiment

"PERSONNEL PANORAMA," which appears in this issue, has become an annual feature of *Public Personnel Review*. These yearly summaries of current developments give readers an opportunity to sense trends and pinpoint current issues in the field.

Viewing the panorama of 1959 leads me to wonder: "What will be the outlook when the highlights of 1960 are reviewed?" Although I have no gift of prophecy, of this I am confident: Each of us in his own way can add lustre, depth, and perspective to the 1960 picture if we bring to our daily work the conscious urge to seek answers to our problems by active experimentation.

Recently we sent to readers of the *Personnel Man* copies of a monthly letter published by the Royal Bank of Canada. The theme of this particular communique was entitled "About Trying Experiments." We felt that this essay on experimentation was rich in inspirational value for men and women in the personnel field.

As the author of the essay points out:

Men of science and business learn every day from experiments. By trying things out they constantly correct their ideas, revise their theories, improve their methods, and so come nearer and nearer to what is best.

Creative imagination, speculative thinking, the flash of genius—all these have a role in achieving progress. But the time ultimately comes when the fruits of these generative forces must be put to the test of practical experimentation . . . trying out the idea, the method, the machine, to see if it will actually work. Without controlled experimentation and appraisal of results, the untested hypothesis and the untried method remain forever marooned in the realm of theory.

To experiment productively requires more than a stab-in-the-dark approach. We must first marshal the known facts; then we explore the alternatives and focus on those that appear most promising. Next we plan the experiment so that it will yield meaningful information. Finally, and perhaps most important, we expose experimental findings to critical analysis, and persist in fresh effort if our initial try is unbled by success.

The personnel field is as fertile as any in opportunities for constructive experimentation. Let me pose a few "unorthodox" questions: Is the "rule of three" the best formula for certification? Can civil service employees, under certain circumstances properly engage in political activity? Would it strengthen and improve a personnel program to delegate more authority and responsibility to operating departments?

I make no case for any of these questions; their purpose is merely to illustrate my point. But I do espouse the case for a genuine spirit of experimentation in our field. It was that spirit which prompted the first try-outs of such "new" ideas as the short-answer test . . . position classification based on job duties . . . training supervisors in the art of supervision—all commonplace techniques now.

No personnel man worth his salt would claim that we have all the right answers—that there is no room for further experimentation. The year 1960 is a new year with the record yet unwritten. Who knows—it may be a year in which the chronicle will show significant advances in our knowledge and competence—advances produced by some venturesome experiments.

Kenneth P. Varner

EDITOR

Meet the Authors

● **Joseph Krislov**, author of *Cost of Unemployment Compensation for State and Local Government Employees*, received his Ph.D. degree from the University of Wisconsin. He has served as research director for two labor organizations, and has taught at several universities. A past contributor to *Public Personnel Review*, he has also contributed articles to the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, *Labor Law Journal*, *Personnel*, and *Personnel Administration*. He now resides in Baltimore, Md., where he is engaged in research work.

● **Don C. Lawlis**, co-author of *Meeting Manpower Requirements of a State Government*, is employed by the International Business Machines Company. He did undergraduate work in psychology and economics and received his bachelor's degree from Louisiana State University, and subsequently received his M.B.A. degree from the same institution, specializing on the field of personnel.

● **Dr. Preston P. LeBreton**, co-author of *Meeting Manpower Requirements of a State Government*, is head of the Department of Management and Marketing, Louisiana State University. He received his Ph.D. degree from the University of Illinois, and did post-doctoral work both at Carnegie Tech and at Harvard University. Several of his articles have appeared in *Personnel*, in *Dun's Review and Modern Industry*, and in the *Journal of the Academy of Management*. He is a member of the research and publications committee of the Academy of Management.

● **Dr. Richard E. McArdle**, author of *Personnel Administration as a Management Code*, is Chief of the Forest Service, United States Department of Agriculture. A native Kentuckian, he holds B.S., M.S., and Ph.D. degrees from the University of Michigan, which has also awarded him an honorary degree of Sc.D. He was one of three persons selected to receive the Public Personnel Association Award for Merit in 1959, and his

remarks on that occasion form the basis for the present article.

● **James H. McCormack**, co-author of *Another View on Psychiatric Screening of Police Recruits*, is a Senior Personnel Examiner, New York City Department of Personnel. As a member of the staff of that agency for more than two decades, he has had wide experience in testing for a variety of occupations. For the past several years he has been responsible for promotion tests in the law-enforcement field. He is a previous contributor to *Public Personnel Review*.

● **William W. McDougall**, author of *The Louisiana Personnel Program Comes of Age*, is Director of Personnel, Louisiana State Department of Civil Service, a post he has occupied since 1953. Prior to his present appointment, he served for several years as Deputy Regional Director of the 10th United States Civil Service Region. Mr. McDougall was one of three recipients of the Public Personnel Association 1959 Award for Merit, and his remarks on the occasion of the presentation form the basis for the present article.

● **William B. Michael**, co-author of *Maintaining Announced Weights of Part Scores on a Total Examination*, is Director of the Testing Bureau and Professor of Psychology and Education at the University of Southern California, and serves as a consultant in psychometric research to the Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission. In addition to being on the editorial board of *Educational and Psychological Measurement* and serving as editor of the book review and validity studies section, he has published more than 75 research papers and reviews in the professional literature.

● **Robert F. Milkey**, author of *Job Evaluation After Fifty Years*, is a staff member of the Bureau of Programs and Standards of the United States Civil Service Commission. He has been with the Civil Service Commission since his entry into the federal serv-

ice following graduation from Amherst College, and has taken part in several studies of federal compensation practices, including the designing of the white-collar pay survey incorporated in the Bureau of Labor Statistics' newly expanded community wage survey program.

● **Jean S. Moreau**, author of the "Canadian Federal Developments" section of *Personnel Panorama—1959*, is assistant to the Acting Director, Planning and Development Branch, Civil Service Commission of Canada. He is a graduate of the Collège de St. Boniface, University of Manitoba, and has been a member of the Civil Service Commission staff since 1956.

● **Keith Ocheltree**, author of the "State and Local Developments" section of *Personnel Panorama—1959*, is a Senior Staff Member of the Public Personnel Association. His background includes graduate work in public administration at Syracuse University; a public administration internship in New York state, and work in the Training Division of the New York State Civil Service Department. Prior to joining the Public Personnel Association staff, Mr. Ocheltree was for five years a field staff member of Public Administration Service.

● **Herbert Popenoe**, co-author of *Maintaining Announced Weights of Part Scores on a Total Examination*, is Director of the Administrative Services Branch and Chairman of the Committee on Research Studies of the Los Angeles City Schools, and has been closely connected with research and statistics during his twenty years of service with the Los Angeles City Schools. He holds an M.A. degree from the University of Southern California, and a Ph.D. degree from Stanford University, and has taught psychology and statistics at both schools.

● **Harry Reiner**, co-author of *Another View on Psychiatric Screening of Police Recruits*, is Chief, Law Enforcement and Social Service Examinations, New York City Department of Personnel. He is presently directing a long-term research project in the validation of police promotional examinations, and has previously contributed to *Public Personnel Review*.

● **Allan R. Richards**, author of *Coopera-*

tive Supervision—A Technique for the Adaptation of Skills in the section, "Around the Personnel World," is Advisor in Personnel Management in a cooperative development program being conducted jointly by the University of Tennessee and the Escuela de Administración Pública, Universidad Mayor de San Andres, in La Paz, Bolivia.

● **Foster B. Roser**, author of *The Philadelphia Story*, is Personnel Director of the City of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, where he served as Deputy Personnel Director before being named Director in 1956. Before coming to Philadelphia, Mr. Roser was for 14 years Personnel Director of the City of Flint, Michigan, and served for two years in Tokyo as a member of a special task force developing a new personnel program for the Japanese government. Mr. Roser was one of three recipients of the Public Personnel Association's 1959 Award for Merit, and *The Philadelphia Story* is the publication of his remarks on the occasion of the Award presentation.

● **Charles J. Setzer**, co-author of *Another View on Psychiatric Screening of Police Recruits*, is a Personnel Examiner, New York City Department of Personnel. His present work is largely concerned with examinations for law-enforcement positions in the several governmental agencies in the city which provide police services. Prior to his present position, Mr. Setzer was a member of the New York City Police Department for several years. He is a previous contributor to *Public Personnel Review*, and has also contributed to other professional publications.

● **William G. Wendell**, author of the "U. S. Federal Service Developments" section of *Personnel Panorama—1959*, is a staff member in the Office of the Special Assistant to the President for Personnel Management, The White House. A graduate of Amherst College and Harvard University, he began his government service with the San Francisco Regional Office of the United States Civil Service Commission. Before coming to his present assignment, he held the position of Field Operations Officer in the Commission's central office.

Personnel Panorama—1959

1. U. S. Federal Service Developments

William G. Wendell

Health insurance and merit promotion programs among highlights of legislative and administrative activity.

FROM THE PERSONNEL VIEWPOINT, the highlight of the first session of the 86th Congress was the passage of health insurance legislation for federal employees. The health bill, together with other benefits granted in recent years, such as life insurance, unemployment compensation, and improved pay and retirement benefits, reflects a considerable measure of success in the President's stated policy that federal personnel programs should combine the best personnel practices of private industry with the special needs of the government.

On the administrative side, the year marked the implementation of the new federal Merit Promotion Program throughout the government. The program has been hailed as one of the more significant extensions of the merit principle since the passage of the Civil Service Act.

Legislative Developments

During the first session of the 86th Congress twenty-nine bills were passed that would have some effect on federal personnel management. Although some of the items cited below are admittedly of minor significance, they are an essential part of an annual panoramic view of the complex body of federal personnel law. A comprehensive listing of 1959 personnel legislation is also useful for reference purposes.

Health and Life Insurance

Federal Employee Health Benefits Act (P.L. 86-382). All sides have long been agreed on the need for a health insurance program. Nevertheless, some aspect of every bill introduced since 1954 has been the subject of controversy. Enactment of health insurance legislation in 1959 was the result of

months of intensive effort to work out a bill which would be responsive to all viewpoints.

The new health insurance program will go into effect in the first pay period after July 1, 1960. It covers practically all civil officers and employees of the three branches of government, except for TVA, which has its own program, and noncitizen employees outside the United States. Annuitants under federal civilian retirement or compensation systems are also covered—provided they retire after the effective date of the Act and meet the service and participation requirements. Members of the family are, of course, included. No person may be excluded because of poor health.

The law directs the Civil Service Commission to contract with private health insurance organizations for various types of common insurance plans. Those authorized are: (1) service benefit plans of the Blue Cross-Blue Shield type, (2) indemnity benefit plans of the type offered by insurance companies, (3) employee organization health plans, (4) comprehensive medical plans of either the group-practice or individual-practice type. The law further provides that the service or indemnity benefit plans, which are the basic nation-wide plans, must include major medical coverage and provide two levels of benefits so that any employee who wishes to purchase greater benefits may do so by paying the extra costs.

The Commission is required to publish sufficient information about each of the health plans for which it has contracted to enable each employee to make an informed choice among the available plans to select the one best suited to his needs.

In most cases, the government contribution will be half the cost of the standard

government-wide service or indemnity benefit plan or any lower cost plan. Employees or annuitants choosing a more expensive plan will be required to bear the additional cost.

Group Life Insurance Amendments (P.L. 86-377). Approximately 55,000 federal employees and officials will benefit from the general insurance amendments which were added to a bill authorizing additional high level positions for the Defense Department (described below). The amendments halt the automatic decline in policy value for employees aged 65 or over so long as they remain employed by the government. Full insurance, in the amount of the employee's salary rounded to the next higher thousand, is restored to present employees, and regular salary deductions are resumed. The benefits are not retroactive for those who died or retired prior to September 23, 1959, the date of enactment. The law also reduces from 15 to 12 the number of years of service required for eligibility for free coverage after retirement.

Fringe Benefits

Legal Holidays (P.L. 86-362). This law guarantees federal employees eight legal holidays a year, regardless of the day on which any particular holiday falls. When a holiday falls on a Saturday, for those who have a normal workweek, or on an employee's day off in lieu of Saturday in the case of an irregular workweek, the preceding workday will be considered a holiday for leave and pay purposes.

On the average, Saturday holidays occur about once a year, and all employees will benefit to that extent. In addition, the law will insure equal treatment for all federal employees. Previously, a given holiday would benefit some employees but be lost to others, all according to how the workweek was scheduled.

Federal Credit Union Amendments (P.L. 86-354). This law benefits members of any credit union that operates under federal statute whether those members are public employees or employees of private industry. The law increases the unsecured amount which an employee may borrow from \$400

to \$750, increases the maximum repayment period from three to five years, authorizes federal credit unions to cash and sell checks to members, eases borrowing restrictions on credit union officials, and provides for including the credit unions under the criminal laws prohibiting bank robbery and other crimes.

Revision of Federal Tort Claims Law (P.L. 86-238). The limit for administrative settlement of tort claims against the United States increased by this law from \$1,000 to \$2,500. Such a claim may arise from an act or omission of a federal employee acting within the scope of his employment. Since the administrative settlement of such a claim constitutes a bar to recovery of damages through a suit against the employee involved, the increased limit will afford federal employees an additional measure of protection from the chance of being involved in accident or other suits.

High Level Administrative and Scientific Positions

A number of bills were passed authorizing additional positions in grades GS-16 to 18 and additional scientific and professional positions paying from \$12,500 to \$19,000 a year. No action was taken on the over-all need for improved executive compensation, but higher executive salaries were authorized in certain cases.

Defense Department Positions (P.L. 86-377). Reflecting the growing complexity of the military effort, this law authorizes 71 additional GS-16 to 18 positions and 158 additional high-level research and development positions in the Department of Defense.

Various Agency Positions (P.L. 86-370). Salary changes made by this law were as follows: The Department of Commerce is authorized to pay each examiner-in-chief and designated examiner-in-chief in the Patent Office at not to exceed the top scheduled rate of GS-17 and GS-16 respectively. The salaries of the Commissioner of Social Security and the Commissioner of Education were increased from \$17,500 to \$20,000. The salaries of the Deputy Commissioner and the Chief Counsel of Internal Revenue; the Administrative Assistant Sec-

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

retaries of the Interior, Agriculture, Labor, and Treasury; and the Administrative Assistant Attorney General were increased from \$17,500 to \$19,000.

This law also authorized some new administrative and scientific positions: Treasury Department received authority for 114 additional positions in the top three grades. Authorizations for special scientific and professional positions were raised from five to fifteen for the Agriculture Department, and from five to ten for the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

National Security Agency (P.L. 86-36). This law removed all NSA positions from the Classification Act and authorized the Secretary of Defense to fix salaries in accordance with comparable Classification Act rates for similar duties. The action was taken to protect the confidential nature of this agency's work. The law also reestablished 50 scientific and professional positions and authorized 50 positions at the top three grade levels.

Mutual Security Act Amendments (P.L. 86-108). These amendments provide for three changes: (1) Increase the number of GS-16 to 18 positions in the International Cooperation Administration from 35 to 45 and authorize one salary at the rate of \$20,000 a year. (2) The Office of Inspector General and Comptroller is established in the Department of State at a salary of \$19,000 and a Deputy at a salary rate not to exceed GS-18. (3) The Act gives the Secretary of State discretionary authority to extend Foreign Service Reserve Officer appointments or assignments for additional five-year periods. Previously, such appointments were automatically limited to five-year terms.

Civil Service Commission (P.L. 86-382). The Health Insurance Act (described above) raised the salary of the Executive Director of the Commission from \$17,500 to \$19,000 a year and authorized a GS-18 position to head the Retirement and Insurance function.

Renegotiation Board (P.L. 86-89). This Act provided a salary of \$19,000 for the General Counsel of the Renegotiation Board.

Career Executive Board Rider (P.L. 86-255). Congressional objection to the senior civil service plan led to the attachment of

a prohibition in the Civil Service Commission appropriation bill against the use of funds for the Career Executive Board, and to the deletion of other department funds for the same purpose.

The Career Executive Board has been established by the President as a practical method of attaining the objectives of the Hoover Commission proposals for maximum development and utilization of executive talent existing with the career service. The plan called for the improvement and refinement of the civil service system through the designation of a body of senior civil servants. These top careerists were to be carefully selected from among managerial employees in the three highest grades, to enjoy special prestige and to be available for assignment anywhere.

Other Pay Measures

In view of the ten percent salary increases granted in 1958, no general pay legislation was considered this year. However, in addition to the higher executive salaries described above there were a number of minor bills that affected pay.

Pay Administration (P.L. 86-122). The first section of this law makes an improvement in fiscal accounting procedures by eliminating the authority to charge to current appropriations the gross earnings of federal employees for pay periods occurring in part in previous fiscal years.

The second section removes a pay inequity for Congressmen moving to positions in the Executive Branch, where their salaries were required to be fixed at the minimum step of the grade. This measure permits the salary to be fixed at any step of the grade, provided the individual had at least two years of service as a Member. The law contains retroactive provisions.

National Zoological Park Police (P.L. 86-379). This act provides salary increases of one Classification Act grade for members of the Park Police. The new scale for Private, Sergeant, Lieutenant and Captain is GS-5, 6, 7 and 8, respectively.

Lighthouse Keepers (P.L. 86-309). This act increased the limitation on the basic salary of civilian lighthouse and lightship keepers employed by the Coast Guard to

\$5,100. Base salary was formerly limited to \$3,750.

Referee Salary and Expense Fund (P.L. 86-110). This measure amends the Bankruptcy Act to consolidate the referees' salary and expense funds and thus reduce administrative costs.

National Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (P.L. 86-6). This temporary commission is authorized to fix the salaries of its executive secretary and other employees without regard to the Classification Act. However, any federal employee subject to civil service laws who is assigned to the Commission will retain his status without interruption or loss of privileges.

Travel Allowances

Judiciary (P.L. 86-138). This measure brings justices and judges within the provisions of the Travel Expense Act to avoid inconsistencies in laws relating to federal officials. It provides for an increase to \$25 a day as the maximum amount which can be reimbursed for expenses actually incurred on official court business away from the regular duty station.

Appointment

Naval Activities (P.L. 86-148). Eighty-four years ago, and well before the passage of the Civil Service Act, a Congressional committee took official note of a strange employment phenomenon which manifested itself at Navy yards at the time of national elections, namely, the hiring of unnecessary employees just before an election and their discharge immediately after. As a result, Congress enacted a prohibition against any increase in force at a Naval activity within sixty days of a national election, unless the Secretary of the Navy certified to the need. As presently interpreted, the 1876 law applied to approximately 800 naval activities, for which any Secretarial certification had to be made on an individual basis. No other department or agency has had such a restriction imposed. Public Law 86-148 has finally repealed this hoary old prohibition, long out of date under the merit system and other controls.

Customs Court (P.L. 86-243). This legislation permits the Customs Court to

employ and remove clerks, deputies, marshals, assistants, and other employees in accordance with prevailing practices in other U. S. Courts. The appointing authority was previously vested in the chief judge, to be exercised according to civil service laws.

Referees in Bankruptcy (P.L. 86-144). This law permits the filling of bankruptcy referee vacancies without the necessity of obtaining the recommendations or approval of the Judicial Conference, provided there is no change in the salary of the position. Previously it could take several months to fill such a vacancy when the Conference was not in session and each member had to be polled by mail.

District Court (P.L. 86-221). This law authorizes district court judges to appoint law clerks and secretaries without first obtaining the approval of the chief judge of the circuit. This change was also designed to eliminate delay in filling vacancies.

Retirement

Farm Credit Bank Employees (P.L. 86-168). This measure is unusual, and perhaps significant, in that it becomes the first time that nonfederal employees have been extended coverage under the Civil Service Retirement Act. Pursuant to a transfer of certain functions from the Farm Credit Administration to federal land banks, this law states that employees of federal land banks, federal intermediate credit banks, or banks for cooperatives will not be considered federal employees. The one exception relates to continuity of coverage under the Civil Service Retirement Act for those employees presently covered, for civil service employees presently under the Retirement Act but subsequently transferring to a position in one of these banks without a break in service, and optionally, for those former bank employees who wish to resume retirement coverage upon reemployment in these banks.

Widows and Children of Comptrollers General (P.L. 86-87). This law corrects an inequity by providing for survivors' annuities to widows and dependent children of Comptrollers General, including those already retired. The retirement provisions are administered by the General Accounting Office.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

Lighthouse Service (P.L. 86-361). An increase of ten percent, or \$150 a year, whichever is greater, in retirement pay of certain members of the former Lighthouse Service was passed this year. Retirees under other systems received a general increase the year before.

Director of D. C. Police Force Band (P.L. 86-356). The purpose of this law is to place the present director of the Police Band under the retirement system for District of Columbia Policemen and Firemen instead of the Civil Service Retirement Act.

U. S. Commissioners (P.L. 86-306). This law amends the Civil Service Retirement Act for the purpose of equalizing the crediting of service performed by U. S. Commissioners with existing requirements for crediting services of other federal employees employed on a fee basis.

Training

Postmaster Training (P.L. 86-33). The Government Employees Training Act of 1958 excluded Presidential appointees from its provisions, except where individuals were specifically designated by the President. The present legislation removes this restriction in the case of postmasters. These officials may now participate in normal training activities without the need for executive clearance.

Overseas Allowances and Benefits

V.A. Employees in the Philippines (P.L. 86-116). The variation in overseas benefits and allowances has created inequities and serious morale problems for employees of some agencies. This Act relieves such a situation for Veterans Administration employees in the Philippines by permitting benefits similar to those provided for Foreign Service personnel. These relate to quarters and representation allowances, travel expenses, transportation of automobiles, home leave, and overseas hospitalization and medical care.

Navy Employees in England (P.L. 86-26). During the period from January 1, 1949, to August 16, 1953, the Navy paid quarters allowances to its civilian employees in London, England, in a manner later found to be inconsistent with applicable regulations.

This legislation validates any possible overpayments and provides for refund of any amount already repaid. It was introduced and passed in order to avoid the adverse reaction which would result from requiring former employees to submit detailed expense vouchers to justify housing allowances received in good faith so many years ago.

Defense Department Overseas Teachers Pay and Personnel Practices Act (P.L. 86-91). The Defense Department has encountered considerable difficulty in employing teachers on a school-year basis in overseas dependent schools under the system designed for year-around employees. This measure removes these teachers and certain other school positions from the classification, pay, and leave laws. Basic compensation will now be fixed by the Secretary of Defense, based on rates for similar positions in the United States. A new system for sick and emergency leave is established, and the law provides for the continuation of overseas benefits and allowances during the summer recess period. The Act represents a significant improvement in employment conditions for these teachers.

Administrative Developments

Frequently, trends in federal personnel management take the form of fairly undramatic growth and improvement. For instance, the training legislation passed in 1958 has brought new emphasis and stepped-up activity in employee training, executive development programs, and the development of interagency training programs. Similarly, a 1958 White House directive calling for greater attention to federal employee-management relations has (1) stimulated improvements in agency programs for working with organized employee groups and (2) promoted increased management awareness of the constructive benefits which accrue from good employee relations.

Among other developments, some agencies have administratively extended to wage board (blue collar) employees salary saving benefits similar to those enjoyed by classified employees under law. Policies on contracting out work have been widely reviewed and tightened to prevent misapplication of delegated authorities at the expense of govern-

ment workers. Many additional positions have been authorized higher starting salaries and payment of transportation to the first duty post under the legal authority of the Civil Service Commission to improve in this manner the recruitment of essential personnel in shortage occupations.

Federal Merit Promotion Program

On January 1, 1959, the promotion of federal employees was formally placed under a merit system. The program requires each agency to publish "promotion plans" for each identifiable group of positions. These plans are analogous to the examination announcements which are so familiar in the public service. Each plan must specify the positions to be filled, the geographic or organizational area from which employees will be considered, the specific experience and abilities required for eligibility, and the ways in which candidates will be evaluated. Employees may appeal any promotion action within agency channels. The Civil Service Commission will review agency promotion programs for over-all adequacy and enforce strict adherence to the provisions of each promotion plan.

Bureau of Labor Statistics Salary Survey

One development of great potential significance, although not yet widely publicized, is the planned expansion of the BLS wage and salary surveys. Additional funds appropriated for the program will permit the expansion of the survey from twenty to eighty metropolitan areas and, for the first time, to higher white collar, professional, and managerial occupations.

One of the thorniest problems in assessing the adequacy of federal compensation schedules has been the lack of reliable data on comparative rates in industry. Accordingly, plans have been developed in cooperation with the White House, the Civil Service Commission, and other agencies for the selection of occupational areas and levels which will have maximum comparability with the Classification Act structure. In this way, the survey results should serve the needs of both government and industry in making annual reviews of salary rates based on impartial and reliable data.

The geographic expansion will be phased initially over a two-year period. The first annual report, based on sixty metropolitan areas, will be published in December, 1960.

Appeals

In the past the Civil Service Commission has limited its appeals jurisdiction to matters covered by Commission regulations. Allegations that some federal agency violated its own additional personnel regulations were considered beyond the scope of the Commission's authority to review. In several cases, however, the courts have reversed the dismissal of an employee on the grounds that the agency failed to follow its own regulations in effecting the removal, thus holding that an agency's administrative regulations were legally enforceable against it. As a result, the Civil Service Commission has decided that in reviewing any case normally appealable to the Commission, it will enforce compliance with any administrative regulations of the employing agency as well as with its own regulations.

Study of Pay and Classification

In recent years a number of special study groups have urged a complete overhaul of the federal classification and pay system in order to provide better salary alignment, more flexibility, and some ability to adapt to external changes. The staff of the House Committee on Post Office and Civil Service, in cooperation with the Bureau of the Budget, the Civil Service Commission, and the Special Assistant to the President for Personnel Management, has embarked on a thorough review of the study findings and other recommendations in the pay area for the purpose of drafting definite legislative proposals for consideration in the second session of this Congress. It is hoped that these proposals will provide the machinery for making periodic adjustment in the salary scales as the need arises.

Correction of Administrative Oversight

On June 25, 1959, the President issued Executive Order No. 10826 to correct inequities to employees who fail to receive benefits granted under past or future Executive Orders because of agency adminis-

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

trative error or oversight, although otherwise eligible. The Civil Service Commission has been authorized to confer such benefits upon favorable recommendations of the agency concerned.

Automation

The impact of automation upon government operations and particularly upon federal employees has been the subject of considerable interest during the past year. The Bureau of the Budget has released the report of a private management engineering firm engaged to study the adequacy of recruitment, pay, classification, and training programs for federal personnel engaged in automatic data processing work. The Civil Service Commission has sponsored several ADP Appreciation Courses for federal executives to promote management understanding of both the possibilities and the pitfalls of conversion to ADP systems. In addition, the House Committee on Post Of-

fice and Civil Service has held hearings on problems of automation for federal personnel.

It became evident from these sources that there have been practically no problems of personnel displacement in the conversion process. Employees whose jobs have been affected were either retrained for ADP duties or reassigned to other vacancies occurring through normal attrition. With advance planning, there seems no reason to fear that automation in government will have any adverse effect on personnel in the work areas to be converted.

Summary

The information presented above has been an attempt to present a brief but comprehensive review of the contributions that federal officials and legislators made in 1959 toward the improvement of federal personnel administration and therefore the attractiveness of the government service.

How to Order Reprints

The publisher does not stock reprints of articles appearing in *Public Personnel Review*. Reprints can be purchased, however, directly from the printer in quantities of 100 or more.

ORDER DEADLINES. The *Review* is published quarterly in January, April, July, and October. Type for each issue is discarded one month after publication, and the printer cannot fill reprint orders after that time. In other words, the deadlines on ordering reprints are as follows: January issue—February 28; April issue—May 30; July issue—August 31; October issue—November 30.

REPRINT COSTS. The minimum charge for reprints is for 100 copies; additional quantities are at a substantially lower rate. Shipping charges are extra. The printer's reprint price schedule is as follows:

<i>Length of Reprint</i>	<i>First 100</i>	<i>Additional 100's</i>
4 pages or less.....	\$21.75*	\$1.20
5 to 8 pages.....	34.25*	1.50
9 to 16 pages.....	49.10*	2.50

* Shipping cost from Brattleboro, Vt., extra.

ORDER PROCEDURE. The following procedure is recommended for reprint purchasers:

1. Place your order as soon as possible. (See deadlines above.)
2. Address your order to the attention of Richard H. Sherwin, General Manager, Vermont Printing Company, Brattleboro, Vermont.
3. Identify the material you want reprinted by giving the issue, page numbers, title, and author. Specify clearly the number of copies you want reprinted.
4. Provide full addressing information for shipping the reprints and for billing purposes.

Personnel Panorama — 1959

II. State and Local Developments

Keith Ocheltree

Reorganization and extension of state personnel programs and stepped-up recruiting highlight year.

THE PROBLEMS of the public personnel man did not undergo any marked change during 1959. His principal concern was still the attraction and retention of qualified employees in the face of continuing competition. He did, however, try a number of new approaches to these problems and was able to report some measure of success in his efforts. He applied more aggressive recruitment techniques and continued to emphasize training in areas where men and skills were scarce. Relationships with organized employee groups took a larger share of his time and tended to become more formalized. He also sought to improve his effectiveness by re-organizing the personnel function for greater effectiveness and by devising new procedures for the better performance of traditional functions.

Others also recognize the importance of the manpower problem, especially at the municipal level. The American Municipal Association announced the creation of a Municipal Manpower Commission to study the facts and make recommendations on the recruitment and utilization of municipal workers. The study is financed by a \$500,000 grant from the Ford Foundation. The Commission will study the needs of municipal government for specialized personnel and the approaches necessary to attract and hold competent workers in managerial, technical, scientific, and other specialized positions.

New Merit Systems

There were a number of significant extensions of the merit system, especially at the state level. In Kentucky, the Governor extended merit system coverage to approximately 14,000 state employees under his jurisdiction and directed the Kentucky Per-

sonnel Council to implement the order. Employees in the departments affected were required to take qualifying examinations to retain their positions. This order increased merit system coverage from 1,300 to approximately 15,000 employees.

Oklahoma was also added to the list of states having state-wide merit systems. The new state-wide system, established by legislation in 1959, will absorb the functions of the present State Personnel Board which has serviced only federally-aided agencies.

General coverage merit systems were also proposed in at least two additional states, Iowa and Nebraska. Although neither bill was reported out of committee, the interest generated may be sufficient to bring about their re-introduction at some future legislative session. In the new state of Alaska, a bill setting up a state-wide personnel system could not be passed owing to the pressure of other matters. However, it will be one of the first matters considered during the 1960 legislative session.

Organization for Personnel Management

A number of jurisdictions reorganized their personnel agencies for greater effectiveness. Most prominent among these were the states of Ohio, Wisconsin, and Colorado.

Ohio's personnel agency underwent reorganization as the result of a comprehensive study ordered previously by the state legislature. The new law replaces the two-member, bi-partisan Civil Service Commission with a state Personnel Director who will be responsible for administration of the program. The quasi-judicial functions of the former Commission will be assumed by a State Personnel Board of Review consisting of three members.

In Wisconsin, the Bureau of Personnel

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

became part of a newly-established Department of Administration. The functions performed by the Bureau of Personnel will remain intact, and basic civil service authority is left with the Director of the Bureau of Personnel. The composition of the Personnel Board of three members remains unchanged except that the Commissioner of the Department of Administration and the Director of the Bureau of Personnel are ex officio members of the Personnel Board for all purposes except the hearing of appeals. Regular reports on the personnel program are to be submitted directly by the Personnel Board to the legislature rather than through the Department of Administration or the Governor. The Personnel Board also now has authority to recommend improvements in the merit system and general personnel management activities, powers which it did not have authority to do under the previous statute.

Colorado voters late in 1958 rejected a constitutional amendment which would have reorganized personnel administration in that state. However, the 1959 legislature passed a new Civil Service Enabling Act which, within the provisions of the present constitutional limitations, achieves some of the objectives sought by the defeated constitutional amendment. The new enabling act provides for a State Personnel Director for the first time, and establishes general guidelines for a progressive state-wide personnel program. The act also establishes a promotional policy for a career system, provides for in-service training, and sets forth grievance procedures and general procedures for hearing disciplinary charges by the Civil Service Commission.

Recruitment and Selection

Public personnel agencies sought new ways to recruit qualified personnel and in other ways tried to ease recruitment difficulties. To make the job of recruitment easier, a number of jurisdictions relaxed residence requirements. Atlanta, Georgia, repealed an ordinance which required that employees move inside the city within a reasonable period after employment. In Denver, the city council rejected an attempt to require residence within the city limits

for city employees. Residence requirements had been opposed by the local press as well as by the Career Service Board. On the other hand, the New Jersey Supreme Court upheld a Newark city ordinance which required city employees to reside within city limits. Employees residing outside the city were given a grace period until January 1, 1960, to establish residence within the city.

St. Paul, Minnesota, has reported success in filling openings for junior civil engineers by inviting candidates to come to the city for examinations at the city's expense, and by completing rating, interviewing, and hiring before the candidates returned home. Although this practice is relatively common in private industry, few public jurisdictions have found it possible to employ these procedures up to now. Continuing shortages of key technical and administrative personnel may force an additional number of jurisdictions to adopt practices such as these.

St. Louis, Missouri, also experimented with new recruitment techniques. Techniques used to recruit technical and professional personnel included (1) contacting every registered nurse in the state by mail; (2) recruiting visits to colleges and universities; (3) letters on specific vacancies sent to teachers in special fields; (4) recruitment assistance from professional societies; and (5) advertisements in professional journals. In recruiting clerical personnel, the program included (1) administering the entrance-level typist and stenographer examinations to the entire senior class in one of the public high schools; (2) participation in high school career day programs; and (3) personal visits to school principals, placement counselors, and commercial teachers. Other general techniques used included (1) classified advertisements for positions open to continuous filing, and (2) news releases on specific job opportunities to newspapers and to radio and television stations.

In New York City, a team from the Department of Personnel visited fifteen colleges in the city and offered 400 city jobs to college seniors majoring in accounting, mathematics, and civil engineering. Students hired as a result of these visits were placed on leave-of-absence until able to report to duty.

The city of Milwaukee has inaugurated a companion program to its police aide program established earlier. Police aide candidates who fail to meet physical requirements but rank high in intelligence and aptitude for police or court work are hired as deputy court aids. They receive a year of training in the courts and then begin full-time assignments at the court office.

The use of psychological testing, especially for candidates for public safety positions, continues to spread. Seattle, Washington, has inaugurated a program of personality testing for police candidates, and New York City is considering the use of psychologists or psychiatrists to screen candidates for police positions. The Seattle program was adopted after the city found it necessary to grant disability pensions to four policemen because they suffered emotional breakdowns.

Certification

Public employers continue to experiment with ways of liberalizing certification procedures. Probably the most interesting departure from established practice during 1959 was the introduction of the "rule of three scores" in Ventura County, California. Under this rule, all scores are rounded to the nearest whole number, and all persons having the three top scores on the list are certified to vacancies. In practice, this should serve to provide appointing officers with greater flexibility and, at the same time, guarantee that those receiving the higher scores are considered first for appointments.

Veteran Preference

The state of Michigan has revised its veteran preference provisions to make them less restrictive. The number of points added to test scores of disabled veterans has been reduced from fifteen to ten; for other veterans, from ten to five. Preference points must be used within three years after discharge from the Armed Forces. Previously, there was no time limit.

Employee Training

Employee training continued to be one of the principal ways in which personnel administrators sought to alleviate occupational shortages, improve the quality of the em-

ployee services, and enhance the effectiveness of government generally.

Post-entry Training. The Commonwealth of Puerto Rico continued to lead the way in providing "out-service" training for its employees. In 1959, the Puerto Rico Office of Personnel offered eighty-seven scholarships for graduate training in twenty-five professional fields, including ten scholarships in public administration. Relatively few states have been as conscious of the need for higher education among their employees. This year's scholarships are only a continuation of a program which has been in effect for several years.

Glendale, California, reported that 30 percent of its employees are engaged in, or have recently completed, work toward high school diplomas or college degrees. This does not include in-service training but refers only to education undertaken by employees on their own time and at their own expense. Ramsey County, Minnesota, encourages its employees to take outside courses by providing for a refund of tuition for courses which have a direct relationship to the employee's work.

The Political Science Department of the University of Oregon and the state Civil Service Commission are cooperating on a Public Affairs Fellowship Program which provides study and research grants for selected state officials interested in political science, public administration, and other social sciences. Officials selected receive half their salary up to a maximum of \$300 per month, and the University matches this salary through a Ford Foundation grant. This program is in the second year of operation.

In-service Training. Phoenix, Arizona, continued to emphasize training as a part of its over-all personnel program. During the 1958-59 year, Phoenix's in-service training program had the largest number of graduates in its ten-year history. More than 1,700 certificates were awarded to 748 employees who had completed more than sixty training courses offered during the year. In addition, some 5,800 completed twenty-one training courses for which no certificates were awarded.

Intern Programs. Wayne County, the Michigan Civil Service Commission, and

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

Wayne State University have cooperatively developed a Public Administration Intern program for graduate students which provides for a combination of course work and job assignments. The internship covers a twenty-one-month period. Pennsylvania's second group of public administration trainees began six- to twelve-month internships in state government in late 1958. The first six months of training are devoted to seminars and other formal study sessions. Permanent assignments are made during the second six months, depending upon each trainee's individual rate of development.

The state of New Mexico instituted a pilot internship program in late 1958. Interns carry a full-time work-load following an orientation period of one week.

Training for Police Work. Municipal governments continue to institute police cadet training programs. Rockford, Illinois, is one of the latest to establish this type of program. To qualify for the Rockford program, candidates must be between 18 and 22 years of age and are assigned to clerical duties and radio dispatching. At the age of 23, they are eligible for jobs on the uniformed force. Those who do not pass the police test will be transferred to other city jobs. Other cities having well-established police cadet training programs include Cincinnati, Houston, Milwaukee, and San Diego.

Other kinds of facilities for police training have also been established in the recent past. In Montana, a Law Enforcement Academy has been formed to train local policemen. In Minnesota, the state's Association of Chiefs of Police has developed a continuing training program for local policemen. The Association conducted eight regional schools during 1959 to provide elementary police training for patrolmen in small cities.

Safety. There is probably no area in which training can be made to produce such tangible benefits as in employee safety training. Four cities have recently reported notable results with this type of training.

Phoenix, Arizona, reported that although city staff increased over 300 in a year's time, there were only ten lost-time accidents in February, 1959, compared with fifteen in

February, 1958. In Cincinnati, a one-day safe driving program for fleet supervisors was inaugurated to supplement a driver-training program which has been in existence for five years. The driver school requires two full days every other month. In addition, Cincinnati's industrial safety program has brought savings of about \$10,000 in payments to the State Industrial Commission in the past three years. In Rockford, Illinois, the first year of an accident review program brought substantial reductions in liability insurance rates for city-owned vehicles.

Fort Lauderdale, Florida, city officials report that the city-wide safety program reduced the cost of workmen's compensation for the 1957-58 fiscal year to slightly over \$28,000 compared with an average cost of more than \$72,000 per year for the three preceding fiscal years. The city's insurance carrier also made a refund during 1959 of more than \$40,000 as a return premium for reduced insurance costs. In addition, disabling injuries for the 1957-58 fiscal year decreased 38 percent from the previous year, and there was a 10 percent decrease during the year in frequency of work days lost because of accidents. Clearly, safety training is one area which can be expected to bring about actual cash savings to the taxpayers within a relatively short period of time.

Employee Relations

Organized employee groups are growing in number, size, and influence, and relations with them are occupying an increasingly larger proportion of the personnel administrator's time. In recognition of this, the National Civil Service League announced plans during 1959 to launch a comprehensive study of the problems of employee organizations.

Unions continue to receive recognition. In New York City, the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees was certified as the exclusive bargaining agent for employees in the New York City Department of Parks and for all traffic device maintainers in the Traffic Department. In Oregon, the legislature passed a bill authorizing the state and its subdivisions to enter into collective bargaining con-

tracts with unions or councils of unions representing the employees, although the Governor vetoed it on the grounds that "collective bargaining cannot operate effectively in a government setting." A new state employees association was formed in Utah with the purposes of improving the public's attitude toward public service, improving the work and efficiency of state employees, and protecting and improving the welfare of state employees.

Retirement

The adjustment of older workers to retirement and their welfare after retirement are continuing problems. San Diego, California, is one of the most recent jurisdictions to inaugurate a pre-retirement program for city employees. The program consists of five two-hour meetings each year for a period of five years. The meetings are held on city time.

The Tennessee Valley Authority retirement system has followed the lead of Wisconsin state by adopting a variable annuity plan in which employees may place all or part of their retirement contributions. About 16 percent of the over 10,000 members of the retirement system have elected to participate in the plan.

Forecast for 1960

The foregoing are only a few of the highlights in public personnel administration during 1959. The continuing "tight" employment situation will no doubt bring forth similar efforts during 1960, especially in the streamlining of recruitment and selection techniques, and continued emphasis on training as a means of alleviating shortages in critical areas. Preparation of workers for retirement and the effective utilization of older workers will no doubt receive increased attention also.



PPA 1960 Conference NEW YORK CITY

October 23-27 Hotel New Yorker

Personnel Panorama—1959

III. Canadian Federal Developments

Jean S. Moreau

Sick leave administration and compensation for overtime feature revamped personnel policies.

EARLY IN JANUARY of 1959 the Civil Service Commission submitted a Report on Personnel Administration in the Civil Service to the Canadian Cabinet. It is expected that this report will have far-reaching effects on civil service legislation and administration in Canada during the next several years.

In 1959 there were no changes in the Civil Service Act, but there were a number of amendments to the Civil Service Regulations, and some changes were made in administrative procedure. The most important of these developments are briefly described below.

Anticipated Sick Leave

In January, following careful study of a National Joint Council report, a major change was made in the Civil Service Regulation concerning sick leave, namely, an employee who has exhausted his sick leave credits may now be permitted to draw from anticipated credits. An advance of sick leave is granted by the deputy head of the department upon the approval of the Civil Service Commission. The only prerequisites for the employee are (1) a record of satisfactory service, (2) future prospective usefulness to the department, (3) a statement from the Civil Service Health Division stating that the employee probably will be able to return to duty, and (4) generally, a reasonable length of service. Credits may not exceed one year's sick leave, and may not be credited unless the employee has been absent for more than three days in a row. When the employee returns to duty after such an advance, he can get no further sick leave with pay until he has replaced the advance. If he is separated from the service without having replaced the advance, an adjustment can be made from monies payable to him at the date of his separation.

Sick Leave Procedure

In April, the Civil Service Commission recommended a simplified procedure for departmental administration of sick leave. This procedure, developed by a department in consultation with the Department of National Health and Welfare, has proven highly satisfactory and has resulted in a great reduction in work at departmental headquarters.

1. Where the total absence involved extends either for two months with pay, or less, or for one month without pay, or less, the field unit may forward the physician's certificate directly to the Civil Service Health Division in Ottawa, and the application for leave is kept by the field unit. The leave is normally approved by the field unit without reference to its head office.

2. Where the total exceeds the above-mentioned periods but does not exceed six months, the procedure is the same except that copies of the application for leave are sent along with the medical certificate. In the case of classified employees, the Civil Service Commission subsequently receives the application.

3. Where the total absence exceeds six months, or where anticipated sick leave credits are advanced, the field unit forwards the medical certificate and copies of the application to departmental headquarters, together with a covering memorandum.

The above procedure places a great deal more responsibility than heretofore on the field unit and is, in effect, a form of decentralization. The actual granting of leave for periods not in excess of six months is delegated to units who will need to exercise special care in reviewing and completing the medical certificate.

Overtime Compensation

The section of the Civil Service Regulations concerning overtime was amended in April, 1959. Where management is unable to authorize leave in compensation for overtime, the amended regulations provide for cash payment at the end of a designated twelve-month period. In lieu of such cash payment, however, an employee may elect to transfer unused overtime credits to sick or special leave at the end of the twelve-month period.

Because of the financial complications of this amendment, deputy heads were requested to assess present practices regarding the control of overtime, for example, budgetary controls and level of the approving authority, to ensure that overtime be kept at a minimum. One consequence of this change was the amendment, in June, of regulations concerning reports on overtime to permit modifications of the form and substance of the report which circumstances might warrant.

Permanency Extended in Practice

In May, the Civil Service Commission notified all government departments that it considered that any employee under temporary certificate of appointment, who had qualified for permanent appointment and had held a position of a permanent nature for twelve months or more should be deemed to have permanent status with regard to all provisions of the Civil Service Act and Regulations, including such matters as dismissal, lay-off, and leave. Practices in respect to temporary employees apply only to employees under temporary certificate who do not meet the above conditions.

It was not the Commission's intention to implement any changes in the present practice of recommending and issuing permanent certificates. Instead, its intention was to inform departments that, insofar as the Civil Service Act and Regulations were concerned when an employee met the requirements for permanent status he must be

treated in the same manner as employees under permanent certificate.

Suspension Reports

The Civil Service Commission had noted a lack of uniformity both in the type of information which departments provide with respect to suspensions and in the promptness with which such reports were forwarded. In some instances a periodical report on suspensions was submitted in place of an individual report as each suspension occurred.

The Civil Service Commission therefore proposed to all departments that each suspension be reported individually immediately after the employee has been given the opportunity to present his side of the case to the deputy head or to a senior officer of a department nominated by the deputy head. A simple, uniform report form was also proposed for use by all departments.

Prevailing Rate Employees

During 1959, there were only minor changes in the regulations governing prevailing rate employees. These employees are now able to use anticipated leave credits, subject to the same conditions that apply to regular civil servants.

If a prevailing rate employee leaves his position for reasons which are in no way his own fault, he is able to receive any salary increases which are granted to his position. For example, should an employee leave his position in June, and in July a wage increase is granted for his class and made retroactive to April, he would receive the increase for the period April to June.

A complete set of regulations governing prevailing rate employees, casual employees, and other exempt employees of the Department of National Health and Welfare has now been drawn up. It is proposed to continue this practice and to draw up regulations for persons employed under the Prairie Farm Rehabilitation Act.

Job Evaluation After 50 Years

Robert F. Milkey

A brief appraisal of the various types of job evaluation techniques used in private industry and the public service.

JOB EVALUATION, originated in 1909 by the Chicago Civil Service Commission, passed the half-century mark in 1959. This is an appropriate occasion to review the growth of this major ingredient of personnel management and to examine its present-day characteristics.

Like other areas of modern personnel management, job evaluation is associated primarily with administration of large organizations. Widespread in industry and at all levels of government, it has become the best-known and most widely practiced method of establishing pay relationships among positions in an organization. The federal government is the largest single user; in the neighborhood of two million federal employees are covered by some form of job evaluation plan.

Definition of Job Evaluation

To most readers of this journal, it is hardly necessary to give definitions, but—for the record—let's say:

Job evaluation is a process of analyzing and describing positions, grouping them, and determining their relative value by comparing the duties of different positions in terms of their difficulty, responsibility, and other requirements. The process developed:

1. In response to a growing need for orderly pay relationships that:
 - (a) Would be accepted as fair by employees
 - (b) Would provide management with a tool for salary control.
2. To meet a simultaneously felt need for a technique that would provide information required in selection of new employees, placement, promotion, and other personnel processes.

One point deserves special emphasis. Job

evaluation is not a science, nor do any well-informed practitioners claim that it is. Essentially, it is a systematic approach to the problem of grouping positions for purposes of setting pay and for other management uses.

History of Job Evaluation

Pioneered by the Chicago Civil Service Commission in 1909, and later by the Commonwealth Edison Company of Chicago, job evaluation grew slowly before World War I. Emphasis was concentrated on techniques for analyzing jobs and developing better job descriptions and specifications.

Like many other things, including personnel management generally, job evaluation was given considerable impetus by problems associated with World War I such as the difficulty of securing employees, the need to train large groups, and the importance of keeping workers satisfied.

In the early 1920's the use of job evaluation continued to spread—the Federal Classification Act was enacted at this time. There was also a growing emphasis on methods and techniques of evaluation. By 1926, the major methods now in use had been devised.¹

In the thirties, social legislation and growth of collective bargaining gave further impetus to the installation of systematic methods for identifying positions or groups of positions and for determining pay rates. Groups like the National Electrical Manufacturers Association and the National Metal Trades Association entered the field.

¹ Merrill R. Lott is credited with developing the first point method of job evaluation in 1924. The last major method—the factor-comparison method—followed in 1926. Originated by Eugene J. Bengel, it was first applied in large organizations by Samuel L. H. Burk and by Edward N. Hay.

A parallel growth was occurring in the public service.

The personnel problems caused by World War II acted as a powerful stimulant to the development of job evaluation. For example, the War Labor Board permitted an increase in the rate paid an individual, without Board approval, if made pursuant to an established wage agreement or rate schedule. As a result, many companies developed formal pay plans including job evaluation. The trend was reflected in the federal service; the Army-Air Force wage-board plan was developed at about this time.

When industry first tried job evaluation it was used primarily for blue-collar jobs. Today job evaluation is also common for white-collar positions, and many plans extend into executive levels. In the federal service, the postal pay system established in 1955 is the latest addition.

Several studies illustrate the growth of job evaluation plans. A study made in 1947 covered 3,498 companies having 6,500,000 employees. When results of this study were compared with those of a similar study made in 1939, it was found that in 1947 57 percent of the responding companies reported job evaluation plans whereas in 1939 only 13.3 percent did so. Of the companies having more than 5,000 employees, 69.4 percent had job evaluation plans for hourly workers, and 57.8 percent had formal plans for evaluating salaried jobs.

Another illustration of the extent of job evaluation for office workers comes from a 1954 study of 769 firms with offices in New York City. The study showed that 44 percent had a formal job evaluation plan for administrative and clerical jobs. Of companies having over 1,000 employees, 65 percent had formal plans for these groups. In contrast, only 27 percent of firms with less than 100 employees had such plans.

Other studies confirm the prevalence of job evaluation in large United States firms today. Although the more current studies are not sufficiently broad to provide conclusive data, they indicate that the great majority of large firms, perhaps as many as four out of five, have made job evaluation a part of their pay administration program.

Purposes of Job Evaluation

As its name demonstrates, job evaluation is an effort to apply principles of measurement to determining the relative worth of positions in an organization. Current systems vary, but all have certain common characteristics such as the use of: (1) Job fact-finding and analysis, (2) Job descriptions or specifications, and (3) An orderly arrangement of jobs in a formal structure that generally identifies the kind of work and level of work.

In some systems the pricing of jobs—i.e., setting pay rates—is part of the job evaluation plan; in others, pay setting is a separate process. However, in either case job evaluation's primary purpose is to aid in wage setting. It does this by providing a basis for the following matters:

1. Equity and objectivity in pay administration
 - (a) Paying people alike whose work is alike
 - (b) Establishing appropriate pay differentials between jobs of different skill, responsibility, and other requirements
2. Effective wage and salary control
3. Union-management negotiations on pay
4. Comparison of pay rates with those of other employers

By providing information about duties, grouping and identifying positions, and establishing logical pay relationships, job evaluation also aids in:

1. Selection, placement, training, and promotion
2. Clarifying functions, authority, and responsibility
3. Developing personnel statistics

A job evaluation system, of course, does not itself accomplish all these purposes—rather, it facilitates them. Basically it provides a systematic catalog of the jobs in an organization which is indispensable for management purposes.

Job evaluation techniques and products serve more than internal management uses—they are essential to many national pro-

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

grams; for example, employment programs, or manpower programs. The recent interest of some countries in job evaluation methods centers around these uses.

Features To Be Determined in Any Type of System

A basic feature requiring determination in any system is the number of grades or other levels to be used. There are various devices for assisting in this determination. In general, two somewhat conflicting factors have to be taken into account. Thus, salary increments between successive levels must be large enough to be meaningful, but the number of grades must be sufficient to permit recognition of perceptible differences among jobs. The first requirement tends to hold down the number of grades, while the second exerts an influence to increase the number of grades. Most plans provide somewhere between 5 and 30 grade levels, depending somewhat, of course, on their coverage; from 10 to 15 is a common range.

Another important feature of any system is its administrative machinery. One basic consideration is whether to provide for evaluation by an individual or by a committee. Use of committees, composed of representatives of the various departments, is very common in business establishments.

Along with the question of administrative machinery is the matter of union participation. As in other phases of personnel administration, the extent of union participation in job evaluation varies widely among organizations.

Major Kinds of Plans

Many types of job evaluation plans have been developed, and there are countless variations within types. However, for purposes of comparison the methods can be classified into four general types: ranking, classification, point rating, and factor comparison. The first two are nonquantitative; the last two are quantitative and are the two methods most commonly used in industry today.

The Ranking Method

This type of evaluation ranks jobs, by comparing them against each other, in order

of their value. Generally, each department of a firm first ranks its own jobs and then a central committee coordinates departmental rankings and places jobs in grades, most commonly by pooled judgment. In some cases, a paired comparison approach is used—this involves comparing each job with each other job in a given unit.

Viewed against more recent developments, ranking is a primitive method of job evaluation. The method is particularly suitable for small organizations, where it is comparatively easy and simple to establish and operate. In larger organizations it becomes difficult to find raters acquainted with all jobs to be ranked.

The Classification Method

Job classification consists of sorting jobs into grades or classes by evaluation against grade or class descriptions. Sometimes the grade structure is predetermined, that is, the grades are established and described before jobs are placed in them. In other cases jobs are tentatively grouped into classes and levels, then the grade structure determined and the jobs finally graded. General descriptions of levels or job classes are sometimes supplemented by citations of typical positions.

The classification method has certain advantages in the public service, particularly where the legislative agency prescribes the job evaluation plan. Thus, the legislature can exert a general control by prescribing and broadly defining grade levels, and the administering agency can be given considerable discretion in developing and adjusting from time to time the specifics of the structure—its division into occupations and establishment of standards for placing positions in each grade level in each occupation. As a matter of fact, a general ordinance prescribing and defining grade levels of a classification structure does not prevent the development of point-rating or factor-comparison plans for evaluating either all positions or certain occupations.

Point Rating Plans

There are three distinguishing features of point rating:

1. Use of a predetermined set of factors
2. Definitions or other expressions of degrees of each factor are related to scales of point values
3. Pay rates or rate ranges are associated with ranges of total point scores of positions.

Application of this type of plan involves preparing job descriptions and rating each position against the point scale for each factor. The proper degree of a factor is determined by reference to the degree definitions, sometimes as illustrated by the degrees assigned to key jobs. The total point score for all factors determines the pay grade of a position.

Point plans have one real advantage. They prescribe an orderly approach to the analysis and evaluation of positions, requiring as they do the consideration and rating of a number of factors. The scoring also provides a ready record of the rater's judgment and helps isolate issues in controversial cases.

The Factor Comparison Method

This approach to job evaluation was devised to eliminate two problems encountered in developing point rating plans: determining factor weightings and describing degrees of factors.

In constructing a plan, about 15 or 20 key jobs are selected. First, they are ranked under each of, generally, five factors, for example, mental requirements or responsibility, and a list is prepared with the positions arranged under each factor in order of rank. In a separate operation the existing salary rate of each of the key jobs is distributed among the five factors on the basis of the relative importance of each factor in the job, and then the jobs are listed in order under each factor so that the job with the highest pay attributed to the factor is at the top of the list and that with the lowest is at the bottom. The next step is to compare the two lists and eliminate any positions that occur in a different relative order under a given factor in the two listings.

The second listing provides the basis for a rating scale for each factor. Each key position is entered by title on a point scale at

the number of points equal to that part of its salary attributed to the factor. After supplemental key jobs have been entered and the scales smoothed, the scales are ready for use. Other positions are evaluated by assigning each factor a number of points arrived at by measuring it against the scale showing the point values of the same factor in the key positions. The sum of the points for all factors in a given position determines its pay grade.

Keeping an Evaluation Plan Up to Date

Organizations are not static. They expand and contract, revise their operating methods and forms of organization, and continually react to administrative desires, to technological advances, and to cultural change.

Positions and the devices used in their evaluation are correspondingly affected. In some types of positions, responsibility may also increase or decrease significantly with the caliber of the individual in the job.

Keeping a plan current is as essential to its effectiveness as the initial installation. Experience has shown that successful maintenance of a job evaluation plan includes provision for adjustments in the measuring devices—class descriptions, definitions of degrees, factor scales, or whatever—as well as provision for prompt reevaluation of positions when their duties change.

A Brief Over-all Appraisal

After fifty years of experience with job evaluation in industry and the public service, the following points can be made:

. . . Job evaluation has been increasingly used and its use can be expected to continue to grow, although a lingering doubt remains about the nature of the work performed being a prime factor in determining pay.

. . . Emphasis has continued to be on evaluation methods and techniques, possibly too much so. A shift of emphasis to simplified operations and streamlined procedures may be overdue.

. . . Job evaluation principles and techniques have had an impact on military and other personal-rank pay systems, which now generally rely on some form of job analysis and evaluation in correlating assignments

and the rank or special qualifications of individuals. Under some circumstances the rank of the job may even take precedence over the rank of the man in determining his pay, as in temporary promotions while assigned to graded positions in the Commissioned Corps of the U. S. Public Health Service.

... No one job evaluation plan or method has become universal. Given a plan that is reasonably suitable for its setting, the quality of the administration of the plan is probably more important than the specific method of evaluation adopted, both in acceptance and use of the system by management and in acceptance of its results by employees.

... This is a field in which psycholo-

gists could perhaps make further contributions. Some work has been done, for example, on the number of degrees of a factor that are distinguishable, and on the significance of various evaluation factors. One study demonstrated that only three factors in a multifactor system are significant for evaluation purposes.

One general trend seems to be emerging: an increasing emphasis on gaining acceptance by management. The need for this emphasis is apparent in the federal service and is beginning to show through in the literature on industry systems. This is a very wholesome condition, and should help keep job evaluation specialists aware that job evaluation is only a means to an end and not an end in itself.

Tips for Traveling Ladies . . .

... we asked 50 American wives, living on 5 continents, for words of sisterly counsel to pass along to the thousands more who decide each year to try a stint or a lifetime of overseas service. Their composite advice would be something like this:

Decide you really want to go and to stay for a long enough time to be effective. Otherwise stay home.

Learn all you can about the country you are going to. Don't fret about memorizing superficial "manners" or "customs"—you don't want to deprive your new friends of the pleasure and the "face" they get by telling you things you don't know.

While you're at it, brush up on your American history, and on the biggest issues of current American policy—bomb-testing, say, and Little Rock. But when you get there, restrain yourself from talking about America all the time.

Expect all the physical conditions to be worse than the old hands say; they have forgotten what it was like to adjust as a newcomer.

Turn your curiosity button up to full volume. Determine to learn some of the language even if the old hands say you don't really need it to get around, and even if you know you won't have the time to be proficient. Make the effort—and it will be an effort—to meet a wide cross section of your "hosts," not just in drawing rooms and hotel lobbies but in markets and outside the capital cities.

Your children's sojourn abroad is a rich opportunity for them to learn early the value of difference, which is the basis for democratic tolerance. Don't try too hard to shield them from the experience.—From Harlan Cleveland's article, "The Pretty Americans," in *Harper's Magazine*, February 24, 1959.

PPA Award for Merit—1959

I. Personnel Administration as a Management Credo

*Dr. Richard E. McArdle, Chief, Forest Service,
United States Department of Agriculture*

THE FOREST SERVICE is not patterns of organization, or carefully prepared regulations, or physical things such as national forests, trucks, airplanes, test tubes, desks and ranger station buildings. The Forest Service is people. If the Forest Service gets the right kind of people, helps them to develop their potential abilities, gives them opportunities to use these abilities, and so far as possible sees to it that they get a square deal, then the Forest Service will get its job done, and done well. In saying this, I do not intend to ignore organizational patterns or standard rules of procedure. Those are essential working tools. I am simply trying to put the emphasis on the craftsman and not on his tools.

I should make it clear that in emphasizing people I am not talking exclusively about the bigger wheels of the Forest Service. Our year-long organization is some 13,000 men and women. Each of the 13,000 is important to effective achievement of Forest Service objectives. In a chain of gears some of the big wheels won't turn if a smaller one isn't operating. One reason for the closely knit character of the Forest Service, the way the organization can operate as individuals and yet pull together as a unit, is the unwritten but widespread understanding by Forest Service people of the essentiality of each member of the organization, no matter what his title or wage scale. We think it important to recognize the dignity of the individual.

Fostering the Right Attitude

The attitude of the agency toward the individual probably has much to do with the attitude of the individual toward his job and his agency. People who work only for wages and with one eye on the clock, who are not genuinely enthused about the work of their organization and the part that they

themselves have in it, are not likely to create an organization of distinctive character. The relationship between agency and individual is a two-way street, and any agency is largely a reflection of the people in it. The Forest Service is fortunate in the kind of people who have chosen to work in it.

I think it is also true that the kind of work we do and the kind of surroundings most of us work in are additional contributing factors of some significance. It is not easy to describe these influences adequately in a few words. The inspiration that comes from working with Nature, with doing

EDITOR'S NOTE

The Public Personnel Association Award for Merit is presented "for outstanding execution or sponsorship of a program in public personnel administration which has been notably effective in contributing to greater service to the people." The 1959 Award was dedicated to the memory of the late Leonard D. White, and was presented during the course of the Association's 1959 International Conference on Public Personnel Administration.

Three nominees were selected to receive the 1959 Award—one each from federal, state, and municipal government. Recipients of the Award were:

DR. RICHARD E. MCARDLE, *Chief, Forest Service, United States Department of Agriculture*

WILLIAM W. MCDUGALL, *Personnel Director, State of Louisiana*

FOSTER B. ROSER, *Personnel Director, City of Philadelphia*

Here, and on the following pages, are the responses of the three Award recipients to the Award for Merit citations—each one unique in the story it tells and the philosophy it reflects.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

work that will benefit generations yet to come, from the knowledge that what we do is important to our fellow citizens—any normal person is going to be influenced by such considerations.

Similarly, most of us in the Forest Service work alone or in small groups. We are obliged to be self-reliant and to have confidence in ourselves. We must also have confidence and faith in our fellow-workers because there are times when our own lives depend on what someone else does or doesn't do. One result is that Forest Service people develop closer personal ties than may perhaps be true of some other organizations. We like each other. All such considerations have something to do with the kind of organization people collectively create.

Every federal agency such as ours needs some philosophy of management that goes beyond the legal charter established by Congress. For more than half a century the Forest Service has had such a philosophy. Many aspects of it are as alive and vital today as at the beginning. To name one example: nearly every decision we make is consciously or unconsciously influenced by a desire to obtain "the greatest good of the greatest number in the long run." This means that we must always think of the permanent good of the whole people and not of temporary benefit to individuals or companies. This is simply one way to define "public interest." These philosophies aren't things we talk about very much, yet they do shape our agency's attitudes and character. I think some of them are more responsible for what the Forest Service is than the policies and procedures spelled out in administrative manuals.

The Blight of Bigness

I am less concerned with what the Forest Service has been than I am with what it may become. We are a big organization, larger now than even five years ago. We

manage 181,000,000 acres of your lands and mine. We must avoid as we would the plague the evils that often come with bigness—arbitrary actions, complacency, indifference, less personal contact, more tendency toward centralization with fewer decisions at the place where decisions take effect. To handle a greatly increased workload and a wider variety of obligations, the Forest Service is also a more complex organization today than it was a few years ago. In another 10 or 20 years it must meet still more complex and difficult responsibilities.

We must develop leaders capable of meeting these expanding responsibilities. Even the environment in which we operate is changing, and increasingly we meet conditions beyond our control with which our predecessors never had to deal. These circumstances can have an appreciable effect on many new people given larger and more difficult responsibilities at earlier stages in their careers. One result could be that men out at the end of the line will play it safe, make their decisions "by the book," and become more interested in the clock and the calendar than in the people they serve. I do not say that these evils will befall us but they could. We must guard against them.

I am sure that I reflect the feeling of the Forest Service when I say that we want to preserve our basic character as an organization—our determination to shoot always for a high mark, our individual self-reliance coupled with ability to work as a part of a team, our acceptance of responsibility, our desire to excel in technical competence, a conviction that our individual jobs and our agency's job are the most worthwhile of any anywhere, and all the other "peculiarities" that we folks in the Forest Service always have had. None of us thinks it will be easy to do this. We do think it's worth working for.

PPA Award for Merit—1959

II. The Louisiana Personnel Program Comes of Age

William W. McDougall, Personnel Director, State of Louisiana

I WAS OVERWHELMED when I learned that I had been named a recipient of this Award, and with real humility I accept it on behalf of all of those who made it possible.

As I recall my personal friends, and those I know by reputation, who have contributed so much in the field of public administration, I feel specially fortunate to be before you today. My thoughts also go to the noble men and women who, by their Herculean efforts, made progress in civil service in Louisiana possible. I think particularly of the devoted and consecrated efforts of men like Charles E. Dunbar, Jr., and other members of the Louisiana Civil Service League who fought valiantly for clean government over a period of many years against potent and unscrupulous adversaries, with frequent setbacks in their goal. Their prodigious endeavors cleared the proper path through a terrain made rough and rocky by spoils politics and public apathy.

I would not, for a moment, overlook the contributions of the outstanding men on the Louisiana State Civil Service Commission, who, because of their interest and enthusiasm, willingly sacrificed their time and energies to capably and honestly set the pace for the entire civil service program. The loyal support and able assistance of the staff of the Louisiana Department of Civil Service are prominently identified by me with the success of the administration of the Louisiana civil service system and the technical progress achieved in the overall functions.

I feel, therefore, in accepting this Award, that I represent all of those who participated in the historic struggle to establish and maintain an effective civil service system in the state of Louisiana. The citizens of Louisiana hope that the history of their efforts

to adopt an equitable personnel system under the unseasonable political climate which prevailed for many years—and the final achievement of this objective—will prove inspirational to many other areas which have not been so fortunate. We are proud and pleased that the attention of the United States and many other nations is focused in this manner on the merit program in Louisiana.

The Spoilsman's Era

No other state can be more ashamed of the immorality of the most vicious type which existed during the rotten spoils regime of the government prior to 1940. The despotic tyranny of certain Louisiana administrations was nationally infamous; the Louisiana Scandals were a disgrace to the state, and in some respects to the federal government. Some of the more revolting details, however, were not so widely publicized: the dictator-type executive, vindictive to the point that opposition meant economic ruin for the individual and perhaps his family . . . the use of employees of the state to form a political machine and perpetuate the administration in power at taxpayers' expense . . . the enslavement of the employees in political campaigns and extortion of "deducts" from salaries for the campaign fund . . . the loading of dead-ends on state payrolls—unqualified employees who in many instances made no pretense of earning their salaries . . . required sales and subscriptions of the "Louisiana Progress," a factional political paper. Corruption, bribery, and flagrant misuse of offices were also commonplace.

The evils of the spoils era in the federal service from Jackson to Garfield, with the autocratic power motto "to the victor belongs the spoils," were exceeded in many respects by the vicious political patronage

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

system in Louisiana in the thirties. Like the assassination of President Garfield, the infamous Louisiana Scandals served as a catalyst to awaken the honest people to the critical need for reforms in government. Although there were sporadic efforts on the part of some responsible citizens to establish civil service in municipal and state governments during different stages from 1896 on, the first real progress was gained during the reform government of Governor Sam Jones in 1940.

The Civil Service Law of 1940, while it survived only eight years, had many beneficial results. There are different opinions as to the reasons for abolishment of that system, but most analysts agree on two factors. First, it was a poor time to develop a civil service system. Even the best established systems had to fight for survival during the war years. Second, there were no restrictions on the political activities of classified employees, and their efforts were marshalled in the gubernatorial campaign of 1947-48 for a candidate who was defeated. When these politically active employees claimed the protection of civil service against political reprisals, the resentment was directed toward the civil service system.

During the period 1948 to 1952, only the federal-aid agencies in Louisiana had the benefit of a merit system, and this was only because it was required by the federal government.

The Louisiana Civil Service League

A very wise move at the time of the fight for the initial passage of the 1940 law—although not part of the law—was the formation of the Louisiana Civil Service League. The League led the fight for the necessary legislation of 1940 and 1952; it now exists as a strong organization dedicated to insuring vigorous enforcement and good administration of the law, and to resisting attacks on the system.

This League is today actively directed by its President, Ralph M. Pons, a New Orleans insurance executive, dedicated and devoted to good government, and by Wilson S. Callender, Executive Vice President, a New Orleans newspaper man who has been

active in the League's work since it began 19 years ago.

The League goes into action immediately whenever any criticism or legislative proposals threaten the administration of the civil service program. I could give you many examples of the League's widespread activities and contributions to the cause of merit programs, not only for the state but for the city system in New Orleans. For 18 years the New Orleans city system has operated successfully under the direction of the immediate Past President of the Public Personnel Association, our friend and colleague, Bill Shaw. The other jurisdictions which have benefited by the assistance of the League are too many to enumerate at this time.

Putting Civil Service Into the Constitution

In preparing the present civil service law in Louisiana, Mr. Charles Dunbar, Jr., had the invaluable assistance of many outstanding men and sources. Some of the most important help came from Mr. Moise W. Dennery, present Chairman of the Louisiana Civil Service Commission, who is a "charter" member of the Commission. I wish to pay a personal tribute to Mr. Dennery, who is here today, for his major contribution to the public service.

Essential features of our self-operating civil service constitutional amendment, which was overwhelmingly approved by the voters of Louisiana in 1952 by a vote of 3 to 1, include these features:

1. An independent Commission selected from nominations by five University presidents;
2. A Director selected by the Commission, who is also in the classified service;
3. A strong "Little Hatch Act," which prevents classified employees from taking active part in any political campaign and prohibits political coercion, influence, or discrimination in personnel transactions;
4. A Commission that serves primarily as a quasi-judicial body with the responsibility of adopting rules which have the "force and effect of law";

5. Protection against capricious controls or manipulations of the legislature and the executive by the requirement that annual appropriations cannot fall below seven-tenths of one percent of the total annual payroll of the classified service.

We are sure that some experts may differ with us on the advantages and necessity for an independent commission removed from executive control for our strong political activity restrictions which we have vigorously enforced and for having the Director as a classified employee. Perhaps such provisions are not sound for your jurisdiction, but some very sad experiences in Louisiana have convinced us that these factors are fundamental to having "Civil Service to Come of Age in Louisiana" today.

Today—A Record of Progress

We have been able to make considerable progress in all phases of public personnel management in Louisiana. Much has been done to attract and retain the caliber of employees needed in the state service. The efficiency of the state work force has been in-

creased. The employees are afforded fair and equitable treatment in all phases of employment, and are provided an opportunity for a career based on merit and fitness. The results are favorable to the general public, the taxpayers, and the employees.

Most of you are aware that we are having unfortunate experiences in the government of Louisiana, but although the fire test has been made, the real strength of civil service and its general acceptance by the public is evidenced by the fact that the system has emerged unscathed. If this sounds to you like we believe we "have arrived," let me hasten to assure you that we know there is much more to be done. Public personnel must be eternally alert to the need for progress, which can only be realized through adequate research, through the acceptance of new and improved ideas and methods, and by closer association with one another through professional personnel organizations with ideals like the Public Personnel Association, where we can join forces to solve mutual problems and improve our operations. There is always opportunity to offer better service to management and employees and our employers—the taxpayers.

PPA Award for Merit—1959

III. The Philadelphia Story

Foster B. Roser, Personnel Director, City of Philadelphia

TO HAVE BEEN SELECTED as one of the first recipients of our Association's Award for Merit, is indeed an enviable privilege. That the award honors the memory of Leonard D. White makes the presentation all the more complimentary. I am deeply appreciative.

When one considers that at the municipal level there are so very many fine and capable men and women who have made outstanding contributions to our profession, and who surely must have been given serious consideration for this honor, the job of selecting the winner must have been quite a task.

And it has been quite a task in Philadelphia getting rid of the tag that Lincoln Steffens hung on us back in 1904. He said we were "corrupt and contented," and the phrase still applied as recently as 1951.

For 67 years, prior to 1952, Philadelphia bore the dubious distinction of having probably the most discredited merit system of any large city in the United States. In spite of all the traditional civil service legal provisions, the system was completely emasculated by political influence and fraud.

Try to imagine a system where the application form itself required the naming of political sponsors, where politically elected or appointed department heads wrote essay-type examinations for positions in their own departments, where the only definitive requirement for promotion was the dollar amount charged for such advancement, where fraudulent eligible lists were standard operating procedure, and where the civil service staff was kept intentionally inadequate and ineffective, existing on a starvation budget.

Revolt and Reconstruction

In April of 1951 an aroused electorate struck out against municipal corruption and incompetence, and voted in a new form of

government for Philadelphia. The new city charter which became effective in January of 1952 had three important and immediate effects in the area of personnel administration. First, a newly constituted civil service commission and personnel director replaced the former incumbents. Second, adequate financial support necessary to establish and maintain a comprehensive personnel program was guaranteed. Third, the new commission was clearly assigned the task of building a modern, progressive, and comprehensive career service.

The first year, 1952, was a period which can be described as one of major decisions, accomplishments, undue demands and requirements, frenzied activity, and frustrations. Consider some of our more serious problems:

1. Literally the first official act of the new civil service commission was to abolish all existing eligible lists—some 300 in number—because of their fraudulent nature. This action not only added to the workload of our Examining Division but also created a problem for the future because the many enlarged or newly organized city departmental programs could be of necessity staffed only through provisional appointments.
2. We had neither a classification plan nor a pay plan worthy of the name.
3. We had no professional technical staff. Of some 60 technicians required, we started with only two holdovers from the previous commission.
4. The confidential nature of our examination material was so questionable and of such poor quality that we could not immediately construct new tests.
5. Personnel records were very poor. In the midst of all our other problems we had to divert much valuable time and

staff to determining the civil service status of some 23,000 employees.

6. Outside pressures were intense. Many of these were political in nature, and several resulted in time-consuming appeals and in long-drawn-out litigation which seriously delayed important programs.

The more serious pressures, however, were from members of our own team—department heads and others who were so concerned with their own programs, so determined to provide the people of Philadelphia with superior service in their own area, that their demands upon the Personnel Department frequently became unreasonable. Our inability to comply became the basis for bitterness and ill feeling.

Time won't permit me to describe in detail how we overcame these staggering problems. But I must tell you that a great deal of the credit belongs to a Civil Service Commission which by its actions never left the slightest doubt in the mind of anyone that there would be established in Philadelphia a modern, progressive and respected personnel system. They insisted on no less than the best and have played a major role in our progress. Acknowledgment, too, must be made of the assistance given our personnel programs by Mayors Clark and Dilworth. Without the publicly stated support of these two dynamic mayors we could never have achieved our goals. And lastly, I salute Allen Hyman, our Deputy Personnel Director and my alter ego, and the hard-working and dedicated employees of the Personnel Department, whose personal efforts literally solved the insolvable.

The Philadelphia Story Today

The Philadelphia Story, however, is neither the story of the problems which the Philadelphia Personnel Department faced in 1952 nor of the persons who helped to overcome them. The Philadelphia Story is a more current story—an account of what we are doing in Philadelphia today. And it is a pleasure to be able to tell you a part of that story.

Whatever success we may have achieved is due largely to the working relationships we have developed and maintained both

within and outside the city family. The Chairman of the Civil Service Commission is a member of the Mayor's Cabinet. The Personnel Director participates in the weekly staff meetings of the Managing Director's department heads. Meetings were scheduled in 1956 with members of the Councilmanic Committee on Labor and Civil Service to establish understanding and rapport. We have consciously called upon business, industry, and civic agencies for counsel and advice.

Our integrated classification and pay plans have been maintained on a realistically current basis because of a number of administrative techniques. Amendment of either of these plans may be requested at any time by any employee, department head or employee representative. These requests, in addition to the continuing audits and studies of our two plans by an adequate staff, result in from 10 to 25 classification and pay change recommendations appearing on printed agendas to be considered for approval by the Civil Service Commission at scheduled bi-weekly public meetings. Annually, an average of 400 actions involving many hundreds of positions and many thousands of dollars are considered and acted upon at these meetings. These changes are in addition to allocations of positions to existing or new classes which may be made at any time in accordance with authority vested in the Personnel Director.

We are thus able to make pay changes without action on the part of our legislative body. This is not to imply that we ignore our City Council in making sweeping pay adjustments when they are of such magnitude that new appropriations, rather than revision of the current budgets, are necessary. Since 1952 the City Council has twice provided funds for major pay plan revisions in accordance with our requests. The third occasion is in progress at the present time. And we are confident that our Council will once again demonstrate its faith in our determinations by providing funds as we request.

Progress in Recruiting and Testing

The examination program has proven to be one of our prime accomplishments. Per-

haps the best way of demonstrating what has been done is by citing several current facts.

Considering that both entrance and promotional positions must be filled through competitive examinations, and that the city has some 28,000 full-time civil service employees, we are proud that the number of provisional employees for the past year was at the almost irreducible low figure of 25. At present we have 21. (I might add that in 1954 we had slightly more than 4,000 provisionals.)

We hold approximately 600 open-competitive and promotional examinations annually. The time-lapse between the holding of the test and the establishment of the list averages nine working days. In 1951, the year prior to our entrance on the scene, the city received 3,600 job applications. In 1958, it received 50,000.

We have maintained in effect for at least the past year eligible lists in all classes for which vacancies or turnover can be anticipated. This means lists in existence at all times for 93% of the classes having ten or more positions, and 89% of the classes having five or more positions.

We have a continuous testing program through which candidates in the shortage-area occupations can be tested and processed on virtually a walk-in basis. Through this program 10,000 candidates in 160 classes are being examined annually.

We have elevated the recruitment program in Philadelphia from an assignment given to examining technicians to an independent function directed by an expert in the field of public relations, publicity and recruitment. Through this new approach we have overcome long-standing negative attitudes toward municipal employment on the part of the local high schools and colleges which resulted from the city's past reputation as an employer. Entree has been gained with school principals, college placement officers, and guidance counselors. Graduating students are now contacted and referrals made. Cooperative work programs have been established. A campus recruiting program covering approximately sixty campuses as far west as the Mississippi are visited each year in search for candidates for the shortage-area classes. In many cases

on-the-spot examinations for these classes are administered during the campus visit. Frequently, we evaluate the test results at that time and make firm offers of employment to be effective upon graduation.

A Speakers' Bureau has been established. Its members are top-level officials from our various operating departments. They accompany the Personnel Department recruiting team to the schools, and describe not only career opportunities but also new and outstanding work programs in their respective departments. In the Philadelphia area, intensive use of the promotional techniques commonly used in private industry—radio, billboards, newspaper advertising, news releases, handouts, banners, and automobile bumper strips—have been partially responsible for the impressive increase in job applicants.

Positive Employee Relations

National recognition has come to Philadelphia because of its labor relations program. For several years our non-uniformed employees have been represented by the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees, AFL-CIO, under the terms of a formal contract. Because of the highly satisfactory experience gained during this relationship—and I must add parenthetically here that this union has been one of our strongest supports in the establishment of a merit system—the city readily signed a new contract in 1957 which provided for exclusive bargaining. This means that this union is the only union we will recognize for collective bargaining among our 18,000 non-uniformed employees.

We believe in Philadelphia that our employees are entitled to representation in airing grievances and in formulating policy affecting their wages, hours of work, working conditions, and fringe benefits. We also believe in the full acceptance of the principle of collective bargaining. Accordingly, we meet frequently with union representatives on a basis of mutual respect and confidence and settle our differences promptly and amiably.

A Broad-Based Training Program

We began our city-wide training program in 1956. Working with training experts from

local business and industry and with the University of Pennsylvania, our Personnel Development Advisor prepared and issued training manuals and began the training of instructor personnel. A variety of internal training programs rapidly spread to virtually all departments.

In addition, a regulation was adopted permitting educational and training leaves with or without pay and, if necessary, for payment of tuition, fees and travel allowance. This enables employees to attend educational institutions partly or wholly at city expense in order to acquire certain types of essential training.

And finally, a City Training Institute is about to become a reality. Representatives of four Philadelphia colleges and universities have participated with us in the development of a training program which will provide city employees with specialized course work in a variety of subjects relating to Philadelphia's government. The city will provide physical facilities, but the employees will take this training on their own time, and at their own expense. It is our aim to provide them with formal education directed specifically at enabling them to perform the duties of their positions more capably, or to prepare for future promotion.

Progress on Other Fronts

The Philadelphia Story has a number of other chapters which I mention only briefly here. We have the elements of an effective safety program developed in part by experts from several of Philadelphia's industrial concerns. We have a highly successful program for handling the problem of the disabled employee, which has saved the tax-

payers hundreds of thousands of dollars annually and at the same time has preserved the self-esteem and the wage earning capacity of the man who has been injured in the service of the city.

We are in the final stages of completing a job evaluation plan which encompasses all classes of city employment, and which has already received considerable local recognition. We have a successful incentive awards program providing employee recognition for outstanding accomplishments, length of service, and money-saving or performance-improving suggestions.

We have developed medical standards for every class of employment in the city service, backed up by an effective physical and psychiatric examination program. In addition to the activities I have just mentioned, a number of others have been or are being developed to complete the comprehensive personnel program which we have planned during the past eight years.

I am very grateful to be a part of the Philadelphia Story—a story which is far from finished. We do not contend that the basic features of a progressive personnel system, presently accomplished facts in our city, are enough. Rather, we recognize and accept the responsibility for continually re-examining the system and its programs, and for developing entirely new concepts, if necessary, in order to maintain and improve our high standards of municipal personnel administration.

While the task we have outlined as ours is an endless one, it is the endless challenge which makes it exciting and makes possible the continuing rewards of continual accomplishment. We appreciate the opportunities that are ours in performing the task.

Meeting the Manpower Requirements of a State Government

Don C. Lawlis and Dr. Preston P. LeBreton

Successful competition in today's labor market requires a three-pronged approach: manpower forecasting . . . source analysis . . . active recruiting.

IN GENERAL, most state governments are not obtaining as high a caliber of employee as does either the federal government or private industry. This is of concern since the activities of government at the state level are having an increasingly greater effect on our society and economy. Manpower is a government's greatest asset—and also its greatest administrative expense. The latter factor is particularly important today since many of our state governments are facing financial crises.

Most state governments either have a civil service system or follow the general hiring techniques of this type of system. From a purely theoretical standpoint civil service is the best means of protecting against political interference and assuring equal competition for positions. However, there is no assurance that the better qualified sources of manpower will desire to compete; when this is the case, selection must be made from the less desirable segments of the labor market.

Effect of Prestige on Recruitment

There are many reasons why state governments find themselves in this situation—the most common scapegoat being low government salaries. This is one cause, to be sure, but it is not sufficient to explain why states do not get the best recruits. There is no great differential between state salaries and those for comparable work in industry—and even these differentials are often offset by increased job security of government employment. Probably the greatest factor in influencing the better candidates is *prestige value* of employment. Unfortunately, this is generally ignored or misunderstood by state recruiters. Job prestige accounts for the fact that many competent people prefer a low-paying but high-prestige job in a bank

to a high-paying but manual labor job in a plant.

Public opinion is a complex phenomenon which is affected by many factors and certainly it would not be possible to change overnight the public opinion of state employment. The fact remains, however, that most state governments do not have any long-range plans to influence public opinion favorably. Some states are still practicing "negative recruitment" or "keeping out the rascals." When government jobs were few and much sought after by above-average applicants, this was an adequate and proper method. But today's state government has grown to the point where it must actively seek capable manpower in competition with industry, the federal government, and the armed forces. This calls for an integrated system of forecasting manpower needs, determining the best sources of supply, and adopting a recruiting program designed to build the prestige of state employment.

Forecasting Manpower Needs

Accurate manpower forecasts are the core of positive recruiting. It is hard to understand why such a function as manpower forecasting has been so long neglected, even by industry. In fact, the federal government—which usually leads in public personnel administration techniques—has only very recently begun to investigate this area.

Short-term Forecasts. Short-term estimates are made on a monthly basis for a year or so in advance in order to assure that eligible lists will not be depleted. The purpose of such forecasts is to establish recruitment quotas in advance of the need so that sufficient time can be allowed for examination and certification. Such quotas should be set for each major classification and should allow for the usual number of

applicants who will fail to be placed on the eligible list for any reason. For instance, if past experience shows (1) that fifty typists will be needed in September, (2) that it takes two months to process the applicants, and (3) that about 50 percent fail to qualify, then about one hundred typists should be recruited for examination in June.

Long-term Forecasts. Long-term manpower estimates allow for career staffing and source development programs. For administrative and technical classes, it is best to make them on a yearly basis. In this way, yearly quotas can be set and hiring done not on the basis of vacant positions but on estimated future need. This type of forecast is vital if there is an administrative trainee program in effect.

Long-term forecasts can, and should, be arrived at by several methods. One is to study the organization charts of all departments to determine which positions will probably be vacated and when. For other classes, it might be possible to project the present hiring trend after taking into consideration probable future growth in each occupational class. This is probably the better method for technical classes while a study of organizational charts might give a better idea of administrative and managerial personnel needs. There are also formulae for determining manpower requirements based on turnover and growth factors.

Determining the Best Sources of Candidates

After forecasts are made they must be related to the best sources of manpower for each classification so that recruiting and source-development programs can be planned.

State governments are complex. They employ almost every occupational group. However, since the primary function of government is service, the majority of employees fall in administrative and technical categories. That is, states hire mechanics, truck drivers, road workers, etc., but the crucial demand is for administrators, medical personnel, foresters, etc.

In classes such as typists, laborers, and semiskilled categories, the supply usually exceeds the demand; consequently the em-

phasis should be on determining the sources which are likely to produce the *best* employees for these positions. However, for civil engineers, doctors, and scientific personnel the demand usually far exceeds the supply. Here the function of source analysis is not only to determine the most productive sources from which to recruit, but also to help in designing programs aimed at inducing young people to enter these fields. The latter might take the form of literature, films and other publicity, and of special scholarship and summer employment programs.

Probably the best single source of employees for a state is its own educational system—but few states take maximum advantage of this. Since most schools are public institutions it would be easy to gain their cooperation in promoting state employment. But to do this requires a knowledge of which sources produce the best employees. If, for instance, past experience shows that consistently higher scores are made on examinations by students from certain schools, then these are the schools on which recruiters should concentrate.

Women are an ideal source of government employees. More and more women are going on for higher education with the expectation of working after they marry. Good use is made of women employees in the traditional areas of teaching, nursing, and office work, but little has been done to emphasize executive positions for women. In industry, there is a general reluctance to hire women executives because of the longstanding tradition that the "boss" should be a man. However, this tradition is not so strong in government, and women are more generally accepted. A program for recruiting these well-trained women who have been passed over by industry and developing them into administrators might have a good chance of success because of the fact that women, having a lesser responsibility as a breadwinner, would probably be more satisfied with the lower salaries offered by government.

Other promising sources of manpower for state governments are the handicapped, minority groups, and part-time workers. Industry is often unable to hire these groups

for reasons of practicality, which will probably be a long time in changing. However, a state can take the initiative and not only improve its work force but ease unemployment in these areas. Handicapped workers would include not only amputees and the blind but highly trained workers with diabetes or a heart condition which might bar them from private employment. Well-qualified persons in minority groups often fail to find employment because of prejudices; these persons might be encouraged to compete for state jobs. Some doctors and psychiatrists might be persuaded to work part-time, for example, one or more days per month in some state institution. This type of arrangement has proved successful on a small scale because it appeals to a professional person's civic mindedness and allows him to broaden his experience.

Conducting an Imaginative Recruiting Program

Manpower forecasts and sources analyses are made so that active recruiting can be aimed at the most productive groups. This recruitment, like the manpower forecasts, might be thought of as short-range and long-range. The short-range type is aimed at meeting immediate needs to fill vacancies which will occur in the immediate future. The long-range type tries to develop new sources and raise the prestige of state employment.

The short-range program is tied closely to the monthly quotas and the better sources as indicated by the sources analyses. This type of recruiting is generally for the more common classes of employees and is best done by the central personnel agency. In this way, advertising efforts are kept from overlapping.

Long-range recruiting efforts begin in the high schools and colleges of the state in hopes of interesting students in certain fields and in influencing them to then enter state employment. Usually, the state agencies themselves are in the best position to provide for their own specialized needs. They might send representatives to speak to student groups, distribute literature, and offer summer employment and scholarships.

Summary

Manpower forecasting, source analysis, and active recruiting can be linked together in a plan that will provide a state with an adequate number of high-quality employees. As the public sees that its state government is making a sincere effort to get the best possible employees, public opinion of such employment will rise. But a state must give up the idea that it is going to get a desirable work force merely by announcing civil service examinations and put into effect a program similar to that outlined in this article if it expects to compete in today's and tomorrow's labor market.

Cost of Unemployment Compensation for State and Local Government Employees

Joseph Krislov

Survey shows unemployment compensation is rare for public employees—but where it operates, costs are relatively low.

RELATIVELY FEW of the six million state and local government employees in the United States are covered by unemployment insurance laws. The Department of Labor has estimated that 259,000 employees were covered in June, 1958.¹ Coverage has been extended since June, 1958, to the city employees of Detroit, the state employees of Idaho, employees of municipally-owned utilities in Indiana, and most state and local government employees in Hawaii.² Coverage of these additional groups increases the number of covered employees to approximately 313,000, but this amounts to only about five percent of all state and local government employees.

Although legislators and administrators are sympathetic to the requests of employee organizations for coverage, they frequently express opposition because of alleged high costs. The experience of jurisdictions which have covered most of their employees, however, reveals that payments to unemployed workers did not exceed one-half of one percent (0.5%) of estimated total payroll.

This article summarizes the experience of ten jurisdictions which have covered 222,000 employees, approximately 86 percent of the estimated covered employment as of June, 1958.³ These ten jurisdictions include seven state governments and the District of Columbia, and two local government units.

The author wishes to indicate his appreciation for the assistance of R. E. Wagenet, Bureau of Employment Security, U.S. Department of Labor; Professor Maurice Mann, McCoy College, The Johns Hopkins University; the State Unemployment Agencies; the City of Milwaukee; and the Metropolitan Transit Authority in Boston. However, the article and any interpretations of data contained therein are solely those of the author.

The seven states are: New York, Wisconsin, Connecticut, Minnesota, Michigan, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island. The two local government units are the city of Milwaukee and the Metropolitan Transit Authority in Boston. The data for state governments were obtained from the state's unemployment compensation agency; data for local governments were obtained directly from the governmental unit.

Coverage Provisions

Coverage provisions in effect in June, 1958, varied among the ten jurisdictions included in the present study.⁴ Only the District of Columbia and the Metropolitan Transit Authority had covered all their employees under unemployment compensation laws. The seven states and the city of Milwaukee excluded specified personnel, for example, elected officials, teachers, and employees on work-relief or emergency work. In addition, Minnesota, Connecticut, New York, New Hampshire, and Milwaukee made other exclusions, thereby limiting coverage to employees in the classified civil service.

State and local government employees are subject to the same eligibility and disqualification provisions as other employees claiming benefits under each state's unemployment compensation system.⁵ These provisions vary among the nine state systems included in the present study. To qualify for benefits under the laws in effect on January 1, 1958, a claimant must have earned a specified amount of wages, or must have worked for a certain period of time, or both. Four systems had a flat minimum qualifying wage, ranging from \$300 to \$520; three systems required that an individual must have

PUB
wor
have
wag
men
amo
form
quan
A
visio
caus
mun
three
unen
disqu
for m
work
Be
syste
claim
wage
limits

UNEM

New Y
1958
1957
1956

Wiscon
1958

Conne
1958
1957

Minne
1958

Michig
1958
1957

New H
1958

Rhode
1958
1957

District
1958
1957
1956

* Includ
* Includ
Source: S

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

worked a specified number of weeks and have earned a specified minimum weekly wage; one system made the earnings requirement a multiple of the weekly benefit amount; and one system had a qualifying formula which related earnings to high-quarter wages.

All nine systems had disqualification provisions for voluntary quits without good cause. Six postponed benefits from a minimum of three to a maximum of nine weeks; three denied benefits for the duration of the unemployment.⁷ There were comparable disqualification provisions for a discharge for misconduct and for a refusal of suitable work.

Benefit provisions also varied in the nine systems. The weekly amount paid to a claimant varied with the individual's past wage within certain maximum and minimum limits. Minimum weekly benefit amounts

payable in January, 1958, ranged from \$8 to \$12; maximum weekly benefit amounts ranged from \$30 to \$40. In addition, four systems paid dependency allowances which varied both in the amount granted and the definition used to determine dependency. Claimants could draw benefits for a maximum of 26 weeks in all nine systems; the minimum duration of benefits varied from 9 to 26 weeks.

Unemployment Compensation Costs of State Governments

The seven states and the District of Columbia have covered approximately 208,000 employees. Oregon, Idaho, and Hawaii have covered an additional 32,000, but data are not available on benefits paid under these newly enacted laws. These ten states and the District of Columbia have covered

Table I

UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION PAYMENTS TO STATE EMPLOYEES, ESTIMATED TOTAL PAYROLL FOR COVERED EMPLOYEES, AND THE PERCENTAGE OF PAYMENTS TO ESTIMATED PAYROLL
(By States and Years)

<i>States/Years</i>	<i>Unemployment Compensation Payments (in thousands)</i>	<i>Total Payrolls (in thousands)</i>	<i>Percentage of Payments to Payroll</i>
New York			
1958	\$1,736	\$496,766	0.349
1957	923	458,019	0.201
1956	830	306,404	0.270
Wisconsin			
1958	334	71,731 ^a	0.465
Connecticut			
1958	355	80,260	0.442
1957	157	72,241	0.217
Minnesota			
1958	182	94,471	0.192
Michigan			
1958	426	155,196	0.274
1957	284	143,106	0.198
New Hampshire			
1958	27	23,056 ^b	0.117
Rhode Island			
1958	72	29,949	0.240
1957	42	25,340	0.166
District of Columbia			
1958	233	117,838	0.198
1957	128	107,198	0.119
1956	55	95,376	0.058

^a Includes only classified employees.

^b Includes some seasonal and other nonclassified employees who are not covered under unemployment compensation law.

Source: State Unemployment Compensation Agencies.

approximately 17 percent of all state employees.

Data on unemployment compensation payments and payrolls in the seven states and the District of Columbia⁸ for selected years are presented in Table I.

No state has made payments exceeding one-half of one percent (0.5%) of estimated total payroll to unemployed state workers. In 1958, a year of relatively high industrial unemployment, payments to unemployed state workers in the eight states averaged three-tenths of one percent (0.3%); only two of the eight states made payments which exceeded four-tenths of one percent (0.4%) of estimated total payrolls.⁹ The data for 1957, a year with more normal unemployment, indicate that payments for five states averaged less than two-tenths of one percent (0.2%) of estimated total payrolls.

Unemployment Compensation Costs of Local Governments

The two local government units included in this study cover approximately 14,000 workers. Probably an additional 53,000 now have coverage.¹⁰ Since 60 percent of these 53,000 workers were covered as recently as December, 1958, in Detroit and July, 1959, in Hawaii, no data are as yet available. The total estimated coverage of 67,000 accounts for about two percent of all local government employment.

Data on unemployment compensation

payments and payrolls for the city of Milwaukee and the Metropolitan Transit Authority in Boston for selected years are presented in Table II.

The experience of Milwaukee from 1953 through 1958 is similar to that of the state governments in this study. Costs in 1958 reached a high of approximately four-tenths of one percent (0.4%) of estimated total payroll. For the six years, costs averaged slightly more than two-tenths of one percent (0.2%) of estimated total payrolls.

The cost to the Metropolitan Transit Authority in Boston has been significantly lower than costs for the other nine units in this study. For each of three years the cost has been less than one-tenth of one percent (0.1%) of total estimated payroll.

Cost Comparisons with Nongovernment Employers

How do the costs to government employers compare with those to nongovernment employers? The lack of data precludes precise comparisons, but the cost to government employers appears to be substantially lower than those to nongovernment employers.

Nongovernment employers make payments based on a portion of an employee's wage—usually up to \$3,000—to an unemployment compensation fund. This portion of an individual's wage is usually termed "taxable" wages. A nongovernment em-

Table II

UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION PAYMENTS TO LOCAL GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES, ESTIMATED TOTAL PAYROLL FOR COVERED EMPLOYEES AND PERCENTAGE OF PAYMENTS TO ESTIMATED PAYROLLS (By Governmental Unit and Years)

Local Government Unit/Years	Unemployment Compensation Payments (in thousands)	Total Payrolls (in thousands)	Percentage of Payments to Payroll
City of Milwaukee			
1958	\$218	\$49,000	0.445
1957	148	47,000	0.315
1956	70	43,000	0.169
1955	92	41,000	0.224
1954	67	40,000	0.167
1953	28	37,000	0.076
Boston Metropolitan Transit Authority			
1958	11	34,058	0.032
1957	7	32,671	0.021
1956	10	30,740	0.033

Source: City Service Commission, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, and Metropolitan Transit Authority, Boston, Massachusetts.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

ployer, then, makes payments based on the total "taxable" wages of his employees. Government units are generally billed for the amount paid by their respective unemployment compensation agencies to the unit's unemployed workers. Because of the different method of payment, it is necessary to obtain an equivalent figure for "taxable" wages to compare the costs of unemployment compensation in government units with those in nongovernment units.

To calculate the equivalent figure of "taxable" wages, data must be obtained on: (1) the distribution of wages and (2) the turnover among employees within a governmental unit. Data on the distribution of wages are now available in the Census Bureau's *Compendium of Public Employ-*

1957 the ratio of benefits to "taxable" wages for all nongovernment employers in the United States was one and one-half percent (1.5%). In the eight states covering state employees, the ratio for nongovernmental employees ranged from a low of eight-tenths of one percent (0.8%) in the District of Columbia to two and nine-tenths percent (2.9%) in Rhode Island.¹³

Unemployment costs can be compared by a second approach. Instead of attempting to derive estimates of "taxable" wages for government units, the ratio of benefits to total payroll can be compared for both government and nongovernment units. Ratios of benefits to total payroll for five state governments and the average ratio for nongovernment employers¹⁴ in each state for 1957 were as follows:

	Ratio for State Government	Ratio for Non-government Employers
New York	0.20	1.04
Connecticut	0.22	0.93
Michigan	0.20	1.36
Rhode Island	0.17	2.26
District of Columbia	0.12	0.50

ment; turnover data, however, are not generally available.

A significant number of state and local government employees earn more than \$3,000 a year. The Bureau of the Census found that in 1957, 65 percent of full-time state employees and 75 percent of full-time local government employees earned more than \$3,000 a year.¹¹ Obviously, a portion of the total payroll of a government unit would not be included within "taxable" wages. Turnover among employees making more than \$3,000 a year, however, would tend to increase the amount of "taxable" wages.¹²

For all governmental units, therefore, the ratio of benefits to "taxable" wages would be somewhat higher than the ratio of benefits to total payroll. If "taxable" wages were one-half of total payroll (a most unlikely situation), the ratios of benefits to payroll presented in Tables I and II would be doubled. Even so, these ratios of benefits to "taxable" wages would not equal the equivalent ratio for nongovernment employers. In

For each of these states, the ratio of benefits to payroll for nongovernment employers was at least four times the ratio for the state government.

The lower costs to government units are undoubtedly a result of lower separation rates. Of the 17 states for which data are available for 1950, no state had a separation rate which equalled the average separation rate in manufacturing industries. Similarly, only five of the 15 local government units had separation rates in 1950 exceeding the rate in manufacturing.¹⁵

Conclusions

The experience of the eight state governments indicates that unemployment compensation for state employees in years of high industrial unemployment can be financed at less than one-half of one percent (0.5%) of total payroll. In years with more normal unemployment, most states should be able to finance a program at about two-tenths of one percent (0.2%) of total payroll. If the experience of Milwaukee is typical, large cities with diversified employment

can also finance a program at approximately the same cost. The cost to government units seems to be substantially lower than costs to nongovernment employers.

References

1. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security, *Extension of Coverage Under State Unemployment Insurance Laws: Employees of State and Local Government*, Washington, June, 1958, p. 9.
2. The city of Detroit established and administers its own system of unemployment compensation for city employees. The provisions of this system are determined by the city's legislative body. See *The Public Employee*, November, 1958, p. 28; December, 1958, p. 28; and February, 1959, p. 21. Commerce Clearing House, *Unemployment Insurance Reports*, March 23, 1959, p. 2; March 31, 1959, p. 2. Letter from Bureau of Employment Security to writer, July 5, 1959.
3. Oregon extended coverage to 15,000 state employees on January 1, 1959, but benefits were not paid until July 1, 1959. If data for Oregon were available, this study would cover over 90 percent of the estimated coverage in June, 1958.
4. See Reference 1 above (p. 3).
5. Rhode Island also excludes clerks and judges of the courts and officers and employees of the legislative branch of the state government. *Ibid*.
6. Details of the provisions of state laws are summarized in U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security, *Comparison of State Unemployment Insurance Laws as of January 1, 1958*. Washington, 1958.
7. Two of these three jurisdictions also required a specified amount of earnings following the duration of unemployment. *Ibid*, Table 27, p. 88.
8. State laws vary widely with reference to benefit, eligibility, and disqualification provisions. In addition, the industrial distribution of employment varies among the states. Any attempt to measure the impact of different provisions on payments would be extremely difficult—perhaps impossible.
9. For Wisconsin, the percentage of payments may be slightly overstated because some unclassified employees are not included in payroll. For New Hampshire, the percentage of payments may be slightly understated because some noncovered employees are included in payroll estimates. See footnotes in Table I.
10. The additional coverage is concentrated largely in the city of Detroit, which covered approximately 25,000 persons in December, 1958. The Department of Labor estimates that 7,000 local government employees were covered by legislation in Hawaii in July, 1959. Approximately 7,500 employees in 23 counties and 11 cities in Wisconsin were reported covered by the Labor Department's study in June, 1958. About 4,500 custodial employees of the Board of Education in both New York City and Buffalo were also reported covered by the Labor Department's study.
11. U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *1957 Census of Governments*, Vol. 11, No. 2, Washington, 1958, p. 18.
12. For a discussion of the impact of turnover on unemployment insurance costs for nongovernment employers, see Grant W. Confield, "How to Compute Your Labor Turnover Costs," *Personnel Journal*, IX, April, 1959, p. 415.
13. "Financial Developments Under State UI Programs," *The Labor Market and Employment Security*, March, 1959, p. 31.
14. The ratios for nongovernment units can be derived from: U. S. Department of Labor and Interstate Conference of Employment Security Agencies, *Key Facts As to 1948-1956 Unemployment Fund Experience Under the Law of Each State*, Washington, October, 1957. The ratios for 1957 were prepared for the author by the Bureau of Employment Security. The ratios for government units were obtained from Table I.
15. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security, *Extension of Coverage Under State Unemployment Insurance Laws: Employees of State and Local Governments*, Washington, October, 1954, pp. 18-20.

Another View on Psychiatric Screening of Police Recruits

Harry Reiner, Charles J. Setzer, and James McCormack

Three personnel men raise questions regarding the suitability of present personality tests for selection of public employees.

THE ARTICLE, "Psychiatric Screening of Police Recruits," by Dr. J. H. Rankin, which appeared in the July, 1959, issue of *Public Personnel Review*, reveals a firmness and conviction about a subject which is, at best, highly controversial. Some of the views expressed in this article are open to question; others represent oversimplifications of complex technical problems which have not yet been resolved by knowledgeable personality psychologists. The author's confidence in the validity of his procedures and the testing instruments he employs is clearly at odds with the views of many testing specialists who are most concerned with the development and validation of personality tests.

We do not write here as official representatives of the New York City Department of Personnel, but rather as personnel technicians who have been greatly concerned with this problem; however, we have been more cautious in our tentative solutions. We do employ personality tests, background interviews, and psychiatric interviews but in ways that are vastly different and which, we feel, represent a more defensible approach to the testing of personality factors.

We have not been unaware of the problem and its complexity. As a matter of fact, the Police Department has authorized a long-term project designed to reveal personality factors in job adjustment to police work. Preliminary negotiations have already been undertaken with an outstanding research psychologist in this area who has done similar work in other occupational areas, with emphasis on jobs involving stress situations. The Department of Personnel is greatly interested in such a "tailor-made"

research instrument being developed and has been consulted by the Police Department in the development of the research procedures. Other city departments are also encouraged to undertake their own projects designed to investigate the suitability of standard personality instruments in particular situations.

Personality Tests Are Primarily "Clinical" Tools

Now, to consider the basic position taken in the article: that the use of personality tests, along with short-term personal contact with a psychiatrist, sometimes supplemented by a background investigation, can be relied upon to eliminate the maladjusted and emotionally unfit candidates. We are certainly not opposed either to the principle that personality factors are significant in job success or to the evaluation of such factors. However, we feel that the decidedly uncertain nature of the validation data on personality tests indicates, in general, that they should not be relied upon as the primary *selection* device in this area. Dr. Rankin refers to the use of the Rorschach Test and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory as the two tests utilized. We do not question that these two tests probably do represent the best available instruments. But, are they reliable enough, along with a short interview, to provide a *basis for selection*, without the benefit of the detailed information revealed by a prior background investigation? We cannot respond to this question with a confident affirmative answer.

As a clinical tool in the hands of an experienced psychologist or psychiatrist who is using test results for guidance purposes during a long-term contact with an individual, there is, of course, great value

in the use of these tests. However, this is not the way in which these tests are being used by Dr. Rankin. As with all projective techniques, the Rorschach is primarily a tool for the clinician and was not designed for use in personnel selection. It appears that the Group Rorschach was used here; it can be stated confidently that the Group Rorschach has little validity and has generally been dropped even clinically. The possibility of faking responses to the MMPI, as can be done in most inventories, is not as likely to exist in a clinical situation in which the subject or patient is seeking help and has little reason not to answer truthfully. However, when a decision as to an individual's employment is involved, we must admit that grave doubts arise as to whether we are getting truthful answers, since candidates frequently answer such questions in a manner which they think is what the examiner is looking for, regardless of their true feelings or beliefs. As stated by Dr. A. C. Germann in his recent book *Police Personnel Management*, "There is a difference between going to a clinic or counselor for help, and seeking employment."

It is suggested that a complete picture of both of these tests may be gained by a reading of some of the hundreds of studies reported in such standard works as the most recent *Mental Measurement Yearbook* by Buros or others. Such publications provide test information concerning validity and reliability data which are essential to any test user. A review of the vast literature on the Rorschach and the MMPI does not confidently support the indicated method of using these tests.

Authorities Disagree About Use of Personality Tests

The thesis that personality tests, in general, are rather uncertain tools at best is supported by many leaders in the field of psychometrics. A statement made by Dr. Morris Krugman during the course of an address, "Changing Methods of Appraising Personality," delivered at the 1956 Invitational Conference on Testing Problems sponsored by the Educational Testing Service, sums up this view:

It seems no exaggeration to state that, in

spite of thirty years of extensive experimentation and in spite of a vast array of instruments, projective and non-projective, that are available today, we do not now have instruments for personality appraisal that are generally acceptable to psychologists. There seems to be a growing belief among many psychologists that we have, perhaps, been on the wrong track in seeking such instruments; that personality is so complex, and personality factors, at best, so unstable, changing rapidly from situation to situation, that simple approaches to personality appraisal can yield little that is valid.

There is no doubt that equally strong statements by other authorities may be presented in support of personality tests. *However, the very fact that there is such a strong division of expert opinion should serve as a caution, especially when we are dealing with problems of selection as opposed to clinical situations.*

Background Investigation Is Necessary

It may be countered that personality tests are only one part of the selection procedure outlined by Dr. Rankin, and that an individual interview and background investigation also are part of the over-all procedure. The background investigation is concededly a desirable technique whereby a specific history of emotional instability or mental illness may, automatically, by itself, constitute the grounds for disqualification. Specific instances of instability as revealed by a careful review of a candidate's military, school, or employment record are admittedly sound reasons for disqualification. However, Dr. Rankin's use of the background investigation is quite different. He states that 11 percent of the candidates examined were disqualified without any reference to their background. In fact, it appears that no background investigation for these candidates was conducted at all. Disqualification was "not dependent on background investigation" but was made on the basis of a "poor impression during the clinical interview" or on the basis of "strong adverse findings in the tests themselves." The apparently secondary role assigned to background investigations is further illustrated by the statement that it normally begins only after

the applicant has been accepted psychiatrically.

In view of the reliable information which a background investigation can yield about a candidate in terms of what sort of person he *has* been, as opposed to the less reliable prediction of what he is *likely* to be, it appears that any psychological assessment of an individual should begin with a background investigation. It is our belief that a case study (the record of the candidate's life history as revealed by background investigation) should precede any evaluation of test results.

The article recognizes that there is very little follow-up data to demonstrate that the procedures followed do in fact eliminate the potentially emotionally unstable police officer. For example, the "unsuccessful cadet" is not the same as the emotionally maladjusted officer. Further, it is clear that the forced resignation of some 16 officers for reasons largely due to some questionable character or emotional traits can hardly be viewed as much support for these procedures, since all of these officers had been approved after psychiatric screening, with half of them accepted without question. No doubt, also, a number of candidates were eliminated who would have made good police officers.

In New York City, the current practice is to place great reliance on definite information gathered in a very thorough background investigation by superior officers of the Police Department who are assigned as needed to this investigative work on a full-time basis. This investigation includes a review of a candidate's military, educational, employment, and family record, as well as a routine check with the Veterans Administration and the New York State Department of Mental Hygiene. The investigators are looking for instances of *overt behavior* which are out of the ordinary and which give rise to doubts as to the stability of a candidate. On this basis a referral is made, when indicated, to a Department of Personnel staff psychiatrist for interviews, testing, and evaluation.

It should be noted here that the psychiatric interview and testing will be used only when there is some aspect of the candidate's history which can be pointed to as doubtful.

The decision to disqualify is always made by the Civil Service Commission, which considers the complete picture for each candidate, including the psychiatric evaluation. Thus, we are not so much *predicting* a candidate's emotional adjustment as we are *evaluating his record of adjustment*, with available records of overt behavior receiving primary emphasis.

Clinical Tools Must Be Adapted for Use in Selection

We are painfully aware of the fact that some police officers are appointed whose emotional status and adjustment is revealed later to be very poor and who are eventually dismissed because of these reasons. However, the approach in which a brief study of police work requirements leads to selection of a few available tests has little chance of solving this screening problem. But a research approach, in which careful and systematic tests are developed for the particular police situation and tested scientifically, offers substantially greater promise of success. We do have high hopes for the previously mentioned study on job adjustment in police work. This study is aimed at the development of a testing instrument based on local experience and conditions. Initially, this test would probably not be used for selection purposes. If, after a period of validation research, it was felt that we had a test which in fact does eliminate the unstable or maladjusted, and is not just as likely to eliminate the acceptable candidates, then we will certainly use this test for the purpose of selection of police officers.

There is a tendency for civil service test technicians and agencies to accept and apply directly and immediately many of the research findings from the fields of education and psychology. This is an undesirable practice. Even though the basic concepts and procedures which are employed in civil service testing are derived from these fields, we must realize that there are profound differences too. The most profound of these differences is the fact that we are engaged in *selection* and not in vocational or educational *guidance* or personal *counseling*. We must examine closely every procedure or principle

derived from these fields in terms of the civil service context. The uncritical use of personality tests may do more harm than good unless we are fully aware of their limitations when used in civil service test situations.

The Desirability of Conservatism

To some observers we may be just as liable to censure for being too conservative as others are for going too far too fast in the use of personality tests. Our tendency toward conservatism, however, is encouraged by what we and others know of personality factors and tests. We would rather err in being slow to act in this area than in acting hastily and in disqualifying those who could turn out to be effective police officers.

We believe that we have an obligation to use only those selection techniques about which there is general professional agreement as to their acceptability. We do not feel that any public service selection procedures, which necessarily involve an individual's future and livelihood, should be used when there is a strong and substantial doubt as to their appropriateness. We look to, and depend on, the research and experimentation conducted in other areas such as education or industry; but we can only use the results of such research and experimentation when we are fairly certain that such results are sound and defensible from every point of view and are directly applicable to public service testing situations.

Listen . . .

Government officials must learn the art of listening in the interests of better employee-management relations, U.S. Civil Service Commissioner Barbara Bates Gunderson told the Federal Personnel Management Conference held in San Francisco, California.

Many government agencies, she said, could benefit by giving more emphasis to obtaining and considering employee views in the development of personnel policies and procedures.

This is not the first time Mrs. Gunderson has expressed her liberal views towards employees. She is a staunch advocate of extending the promotion program, the incentive awards system, and a more adequate recruitment and training program.—Excerpt from an editorial in *The Chief*, May 15, 1959.

Maintaining Announced Weights of Part Scores on a Total Examination

Dr. William B. Michael and Herbert Popenoe

The authors describe a procedure designed to preserve the intended contribution of each part of a test battery to the total score.

THE PUBLIC SERVICE and private industry commonly use more than one test to select employees. For example, a "total" examination might consist of a written test, interview, physical examination, and a rating of training and experience. When a battery of tests is used, it is necessary to decide how the various parts shall be weighted to determine a composite score and rank candidates. The method selected to determine weights will depend upon whether or not an independent measure of the criterion (job performance) is available.

Weighting When Criterion Measures Are Available

When standards of job performance can be determined either from records of the quantity and quality of employee production or from supervisors' ratings, the method of multiple correlation can be used to weight the various parts of the test battery.

Typically, the score made by a candidate on each of the subtests is compared with the supervisor's rating of job performance to ascertain which test differentiates between relatively successful and unsuccessful employees. When a coefficient of correlation is calculated to indicate the relative extent of agreement between the standings of candidates on a part of the test battery with his corresponding place in the supervisor's estimation of job success, a "predictive validity" coefficient is said to have been obtained. Once validity coefficients of the tests in a battery have been determined, along with intercorrelations of each subtest, multiple-regression techniques may be employed to ascertain how each selection variable should be weighted. These mathematical procedures maximize the over-all

(multiple) coefficient of correlation of all predictors collectively considered. Since future applicant groups will generally be comparable in abilities and experience with the employees for whom criterion data were available, the same set of weights can be applied to part scores of new candidates until follow-up studies show the weights to be substantially less predictive than formerly.¹

Weighting When Criterion Measures Are Not Available

In practically all instances, however, criteria are not available against which the predictive validities of various tests may be estimated. For example, very little data on job performance would be available if comparatively small numbers of eligibles are employed during, say, a period of six months or a year. In addition, if marked changes are made in job classifications over short periods of time or there are substantial variations in the characteristics of samples of applicants, it is extremely difficult to obtain adequate, or at least uniform, criterion data.

In the absence of systematically obtained follow-up information regarding an employee's level of success on a job, it is often necessary to assign weights to the tests of a battery on the basis of the relative degree of importance that a panel of experts attributes to each component. Such judgments

¹Comprehensive discussions of the correlational procedures discussed here may be found in J. P. Guilford, *Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education* (3rd ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956). See also William B. Michael, "Development of Statistical Methods Especially Useful in Test Construction and Evaluation," *Review of Educational Research*, February, 1956, pp. 89-109; February, 1959, pp. 106-129.

are usually based on *a priori* grounds, although data from job analyses and systematic observation are often obtained before a decision is made as to the size of the relative weight to be assigned to each selection variable.

An additional circumstance with which personnel officers—especially those in the public service—must be concerned is that scores need to be expressed in percentage units. It is much more defensible, statistically, to convert percentage scores or raw scores of subtests to standard scores and then assign weights than it is to find a weighted average of the several percentage scores on the parts of an examination. However, existing regulations or traditional administrative practices often necessitate the reporting of percentage scores.

The necessity of establishing weights when no measure of job success is available as a criterion is often faced by test technicians in the public service. This article presents a procedure that can be used to ascertain numerical factors to be applied to the percentage scores of subtests in a battery so that each of the subtest percentage scores will contribute the weight which it was assigned even if the variabilities of the subtests, as indicated by their standard deviations, are different.

Example of a Traditional Method of Weighting Part Scores

In testing practice it frequently appears logical and defensible to assign weights to different parts of a total examination in terms of what one estimates the importance of each part to be. If an examination consists of three parts, judged to be worth 20%, 50%, and 30% of a total score, one customarily determines the total score from the following formula, in which X_t stands for a given person and X_1 , X_2 , and X_3 stand for the scores of a given person in Parts 1, 2, and 3, respectively:

$$X_t = .20X_1 + .50X_2 + .30X_3$$

This formula reads that the total score X_t for an individual is equal to .20 times his score on Part 1 plus .50 times his score on Part 2 plus .30 times his score on Part 3. Thus, if an individual receives percentage

scores of 95, 80, and 84 on Parts 1, 2, and 3, respectively, his composite percentage score would be given by

$$X_t = .20(95) + .50(80) + .30(84),$$

an expression which simplifies to

$$X_t = 19.0 + .40.0 + 25.2 = 84.2$$

It is essential in combining the scores of the various parts of an examination that for each part the scores be in terms of the same type of unit (such as percentage score), base, and potential ceiling. The use of the procedure may be expected to furnish misleading results if the total numbers of items in each part differ substantially or if raw scores such as the gross number of items correct on one part of an examination are added to percentage scores on another part. (In the example a percentage score falling between zero and one hundred was used.)

Conditions Required for Traditional Weighting

The formula cited above is justifiable only upon the following three conditions:

1. The existence of the same relative degree of precision (reliability).
2. The lack of any substantial degree of interrelationships among the various parts.
3. The realization of approximately equal standard deviations in the various parts.

In actual testing practice, it is unlikely that conditions 1 and 2 will be realized except through prolonged efforts in test construction, which sometimes may not be feasible or even possible. In most testing programs, the realization of approximately equal standard deviations—condition 3—is not too likely to be attained unless standard scores are employed.

How To Achieve Conditions 1 and 2

In the construction of aptitude test batteries it is a common practice to build essentially independent tests, each one of which measures a different psychological function or characteristic (such as verbal ability, general reasoning, numerical com-

putational) facility, spatial visualization, and speed of perceptual discrimination). Each part should be chosen to contribute positively to the prediction of job success. (If the parts of a test are highly interrelated, they represent overlapping measures that reflect a lack of economy in testing practice.) For example, in the Career Test Battery of the Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission, an attempt has been made by the test development units to construct tests each of which measures relatively independent psychological functions and to assign weights that seem to reflect the relative importance of each psychological factor for a given job.

Customarily in the design of such test batteries, technicians in attempting to achieve as high a degree of reliability as possible relative to the length of each subtest, actually can attain comparable estimates of reliability for the scores on each subtest. In the instance of evaluations of training and experience or of personal characteristics, estimates of reliability often fall somewhat below those found for written tests. However, with training and use of systematic techniques, the degree of reliability of ratings of work experience and personal qualities can be made to approximate those of shorter written tests. Thus the assumptions of comparable reliabilities of part scores of a total examination and of the presence of low intercorrelations among the parts probably can be closely enough approximated in many instances to justify the use of a weighting procedure that allows for expected appearances of some substantial differences in standard deviations of test scores.

Condition 3 Poses Difficulties

In Table I the hypothetical scores of ten individuals on three parts of an examination are given. These scores are in terms of percentages. The data have been so constructed that the distribution of scores on each part is unrelated to the distribution of scores on any other part. (Intercorrelations of all sets of scores are zero.) In addition, means (representing average scores of 10 candidates) and standard deviations of the distribution of scores on each part of the total test are presented.

TABLE I

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF THE HYPOTHETICAL SCORES OF TEN INDIVIDUALS ON PARTS 1, 2, AND 3 OF A TOTAL EXAMINATION, ALONG WITH MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE PART SCORES

Individuals	Scores on Parts of the Examination		
	Part 1	Part 2	Part 3
1	95	80	84
2	95	80	76
3	71	80	85
4	71	80	75
5	77	80	82
6	77	80	78
7	77	81	80
8	78	79	80
9	79	82	80
10	79	78	80
Means	80	80	80
Standard Deviations	.8	1	.3
Announced Weights W	.20	.50	.30
Reciprocals of $\sigma: \frac{1}{\sigma}$.125	1.000	.333 $\frac{1}{3}$

In Table II the scores on the total examination are reported:

1. When numerical factors of .20, .50, and .30 are assigned to Parts 1, 2, and 3 irrespective of the size of the standard deviations;
2. When the same numerical factors are selected, but adjusted to take into account differences in the standard deviations of the three parts. The first procedure may be referred to as the system of *conventional weighting*. The second approach is one that in light of the assumptions made *preserves the intended contribution* of each part to the total score. This approach may be referred to as one of *adjusted weighting*.

The left and right portions of Table II correspond to the first and second approaches. Within each portion are four columns. Down the column corresponding to each part of the examination are the contributions of that part of the examination to the total score of each individual. For example, in the instance of the third individual, the contributions of Parts 1, 2, and 3 are 14.2, 40.0, and 25.5 by *conventional weighting* and 2.84, 64.00, and 13.60 by *adjusted weighting*. The corresponding total scores are 79.70 and 80.44, respectively.

TABLE II

THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE HYPOTHETICAL SCORES IN PARTS 1, 2, AND 3 OF AN EXAMINATION TO THE TOTAL SCORES WHEN ANNOUNCED (CONVENTIONAL) WEIGHTS OF .20, .50, AND .30 ARE EMPLOYED, AND WHEN ADJUSTED WEIGHTS (PERCENTAGE MULTIPLYING FACTORS) OF .040, .800, AND .160 ARE USED TO PRESERVE THE INTENDED CONTRIBUTION OF EACH PART TO THE TOTAL SCORE

Individuals	Conventional Weighting				Adjusted Weighting			
	Contributions of Part Scores			Total Score	Contributions of Part Scores			Total Score
	Part 1	Part 2	Part 3		Part 1	Part 2	Part 3	
1	19.0	40.0	25.2	84.2	3.80	64.00	13.44	81.25
2	19.0	40.0	22.8	81.8	3.80	64.00	12.16	79.96
3	14.2	40.0	25.5	79.7	2.84	64.00	13.60	80.44
4	14.2	40.0	22.5	76.7	2.84	64.00	12.00	78.84
5	15.4	40.0	24.6	80.0	3.08	64.00	13.12	80.20
6	15.4	40.0	23.4	78.8	3.08	64.00	12.48	79.56
7	15.6	40.5	24.0	80.1	3.12	64.80	12.80	80.72
8	15.6	39.5	24.0	79.1	3.12	63.20	12.80	79.12
9	15.8	41.0	24.0	80.8	3.16	65.60	12.80	81.56
10	15.8	39.0	24.0	78.8	3.16	62.40	12.80	78.36
Means	16.0	40.0	24.0	80.0	3.20	64.00	12.80	80.00

Computing Adjusted Weights

Assuming the existence of conditions 1 and 2, the following statistical procedure is suggested for preserving the announced contribution of each part of an examination to the total score when the standard deviations of the various parts are different. In other words, condition 3 is absent.

Step 1. Decide what the importance of each part of the examination should be, and select corresponding percentage (proportion) values to designate the relative value of each part. Although in the theory of psychological testing a different meaning is ascribed to the term *weight*, the definition to be employed will reflect requirements necessitated by legal and administrative policies. If it has been decided that three parts of an examination should count 20%, 50%, and 30% of a total score by a policy group, such percentages when converted to proportions of .20, .50, and .30 will be called *conventional weights*.

If W_1 , W_2 , and W_3 represent the *conventional weights* to be assigned to three parts of an examination, a general expression for the determination of an examinee's total score X_T would be given by

$$X_T = W_1 X_1 + W_2 X_2 + W_3 X_3, \quad (1)$$

in which X_1 , X_2 , and X_3 have been previously defined. The first formula given in this article is a specific example of the general

formula where $W_1 = .20$, $W_2 = .50$, and $W_3 = .30$. (This more general formula will be central to the next two steps.)

Step 2. Determine the multiplying factor for each part of the total examination. If the *conventional weight* W of a given part of an examination is divided by the standard deviation of the scores for that part, the resulting numerical value is to be called a multiplying factor f . Hence,

$$f = \frac{W}{\sigma} \quad (2)$$

Such multiplying factors in effect correct for differences in the magnitudes of the standard deviations of the various parts of the examination.

If an examination consists of three parts, the *multiplying factors* may be defined as

$$f_1 = \frac{W_1}{\sigma_1}, f_2 = \frac{W_2}{\sigma_2}, \text{ and } f_3 = \frac{W_3}{\sigma_3},$$

where σ_1 , σ_2 , and σ_3 represent the standard deviations of each of the three parts. The formula for ascertaining an individual's total score would be given by

$$X_{rt} = f_1 X_1 + f_2 X_2 + f_3 X_3, \quad (3)$$

where X_{rt} stands for a score based on use of a multiplying factor upon each part. (It should be noted that these scores will not be in the same type of unit as those initially employed. If percentage scores have been

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

used, the third step of the procedure to be described will preserve the original type of unit.)

Example: From the data appearing in Table I it is seen that the values for the multiplying factors are calculated as follows:

$$f_1 = \frac{.20}{8.00} = .025$$

$$f_2 = \frac{.50}{1.00} = .500$$

$$f_3 = \frac{.30}{3.00} = .100$$

Hence the equation for the adjusted total score X_{rt} involving multiplying factors that correct for differences among the standard deviations becomes:

$$X_{rt} = .025 X_1 + .500 X_2 + .100 X_3$$

Substitution of the scores of 95, 80, and 84 for the first examinee, whose part scores are reported in Table I, leads to the following composite score:

$$\begin{aligned} X_{rt} &= .025(95) + .500(80) + .100(84) \\ &= 2.375 + 40.00 + 8.40 \\ &= 50.775 \end{aligned}$$

However, it is apparent that this score is in no way comparable in size with those scores which the individual received on each of the three parts of the examination, since these original scores were in percentages. In fact, the maximum possible composite score an individual could earn if he received 100 per cent on all three parts is $.025(100) + .500(100) + .100(100)$, or 62.50. In order that the composite score may be corrected for the change in unit that has occurred, it is necessary to adjust the values of the multiplying factors in such a manner that, although the ratio of the first to the second to the third adjusted values is the same as the ratio of the three multiplying factors, the resulting scores will be in percentage terms. The change of scores to percentage units, however, will *not* result in altering the rank order of the total scores of examinees derived from the use of *multiplying factors*.

Step 3. Determine the percentage multiplying factor for each part of the examination. If all the multiplying factors, each one of which is associated with a given part of the examination, are added together, and if

the percentage which each multiplying factor constitutes of the resulting sum is calculated, the derived numbers are called *percentage multiplying factors*. Thus if there are three parts to an examination, the percentage multiplying factors may be designated as P_1 , P_2 , and P_3 . They are determined as follows:

$$P_1 = \frac{f_1}{f_1 + f_2 + f_3},$$

$$P_2 = \frac{f_2}{f_1 + f_2 + f_3},$$

$$P_3 = \frac{f_3}{f_1 + f_2 + f_3}.$$

The equation for determination of an examinee's total score X_{pt} from use of the percentage multiplying factors would be:

$$X_{pt} = P_1 X_1 + P_2 X_2 + P_3 X_3 \quad (4)$$

Example: From the values of .025, .500, and .100 calculated for f_1 , f_2 , and f_3 , the sum is found to be .625. The proportion which each of these multiplying factors is of the sum, is calculated as follows:

$$P_1 = \frac{.025}{.625} = .04,$$

$$P_2 = \frac{.500}{.625} = .80, \text{ and}$$

$$P_3 = \frac{.100}{.625} = .16$$

Hence, the *percentage multiplying factors* would be .04, .80, and .16. It will be noted that the ratio .04: .80: .16 is the same as that furnished by the multiplying factors: .025: .500: .100. In other words, if the first part of each ratio is divided by itself and if the remaining two terms are divided by the same number, the derived ratios in each instance would be 1:20:4.

The second part of the examination receives 20 times the weight of the first part, and the third part four times the weight of the first part in order that contributions of 20, 50, and 30 per cent of each part to the total score may be realized. *The conventional weights of .20, .50, and .30 should be changed to adjusted weights of .04, .80, and .16 to allow for differences in standard deviations of the three parts.* It will be noticed that the parts of the test with small

standard deviations tend to receive larger *adjusted weights*, since the procedure followed serves to weight each part in a manner inversely proportional to its standard deviation.

Through use of the adjusted weights, the total score of the individual who receives part scores of 95, 80, and 84 is given by

$$\begin{aligned} X_{pt} &= .04(95) + .80(80) + .16(84) \\ &= 3.80 + 64.00 + 13.44 \\ &= 81.24 \end{aligned}$$

This particular score is 2.96 points lower than that of 84.2 derived from use of conventional weights.

Rank Order—Conventional versus Adjusted Weights

In Table II the ten sets of scores derived from application of the conventional weights and adjusted weights may be summarized to advantage along with the rank order which the individual's score represents:

Individual	Conventional Weighting		Adjusted Weighting	
	Score	Rank Order	Score	Rank Order
1	84.20	1	81.24	2
2	81.80	2	79.96	6
3	79.70	6	80.44	4
4	76.70	10	78.84	9
5	80.00	5	80.20	5
6	78.80	8½	79.56	7
7	80.10	4	80.72	3
8	79.10	7	79.12	8
9	80.80	3	81.56	1
10	78.80	8½	78.36	10

The amounts of shift in scores for each individual between application of the conventional weighting and the adjusted weighting systems are seen to be -2.96, -1.84, +0.74, +2.14, +0.20, +0.76, +0.62, +0.02, +0.76, and -0.44. One individual who ranks second in the conventional weighting procedure falls to sixth position relative to the employment of adjusted weights. The person who places third by conventional weighting assumes the top position by the second procedure. Only one person maintains the same standing in the use of the two weighting systems.

What division of each of the conventional weights by the appropriate standard deviation achieves in effect is to redistribute the

scores; to increase the range of scores when the standard deviation is small; and to diminish the range when the standard deviation is large. In short, the variabilities of the distributions of scores of the parts of the examination are equalized. A very elementary illustration may be in order.

For the sake of convenience and clarity, let it be assumed that two parts of an examination are considered to be of equal importance. In one test the mean is 70 and the standard deviation is 5. In the other, the mean is also 70, but the standard deviation is only 2. If the scores are approximately normally distributed, about 2/3 of the measures on each of the two parts will fall between 65 and 75 and between 68 and 72, respectively. It will be found that the multiplying factors become .50/5 and .50/2 or .10 and .25, respectively. When the scores of 65 and 75 are multiplied by .10, the derived scores based on the multiplying factors turn out to be 6.5 and 7.5. When the scores of 68 and 72 are multiplied by .25, the adjusted scores become 17.00 and 18.00, respectively. In each instance the range of 10 and 4 score units which have existed between 65 and 75 and between 68 and 72 has become equalized at one unit. Introduction of percentage multiplying factors would serve to convert the scores to the original size of unit such that the mean total score would be 70.

In the separation or discrimination of individuals with respect to test scores it is the variability of measures as reflected by the individual's departure above or below the mean that is important, not the magnitude of the mean itself. Hence, in the equating of variabilities of the part scores it is possible for each test to contribute equivalently to the determination of the total score. The original (conventional) weights which have been converted to multiplying factors merely serve to let certain parts of the test exert more or less influence in differentiating individuals relative to what is considered by a policy group to be the importance of each part. Although not changing the rank order of individuals, the percentage multiplying factors permit a restoration of the original size of unit employed.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

Recommendations

It is suggested that percentage multiplying factors, referred to as adjusted weights, be used in place of the system of conventional weights that does not take into account differences in variabilities of part scores. It is thought that the new procedure will serve to render a more nearly accurate ranking of applicants for positions in civil service when standard scores cannot be employed. Of course, efforts should be exercised continuously to obtain additional reliability

data upon measures employed, to make use of external criterion measures of job success as a basis of assigning weights to parts of examinations, and to improve criterion measures of job success. Although the extent and direction of such efforts are obviously limited to a degree by particular administrative policies, the weighting procedure described in this article should serve to ensure a relatively greater degree of accuracy in the rank order of merit assigned to candidates for positions.

An Ounce of Prevention . . .

To what extent is sick leave used for medical, dental, or optical visits? Sick leave used for these purposes, because of its preventive nature, should not be considered as objectionable. Examination of these instances of sick leave could be made to determine whether appointments are being arranged, to the greatest extent possible, at hours which reduce the amount of working time lost. Encouraging employees to make appointments at the start or close of the day may reduce use of working time for these purposes. There is doubtful merit in attempting to reduce sick leave by discouraging visits to doctors or dentists.

Sick leave data, like all other data, require careful analysis on which to base action. Analysis should not be confused with excuse. Reviewing the nature of the sick leave as well as its incidence should provide a reflection of group conditions as well as a measure of effectiveness in controlling abuse.

A program for proper use of sick leave to improve the health of employees, thus avoiding major sickness, is as important as a program to control abuse.—ARMY *Personnel Newsletter*, December 1958.

1959 Business Meeting of the Public Personnel Association

Kenneth O. Warner

PPA Presents Awards for Merit and Honorary Memberships at Annual Business Session

THE 1959 INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE on Public Personnel Administration, sponsored by the Public Personnel Association, was held in San Francisco, California, October 4-8. Almost 1,100 delegates and their wives attended the Conference, including representatives from more than a dozen countries outside the North American continent.

President Joseph Hawthorne presided at the successive sessions held Wednesday afternoon, October 7, to present three 1959 Public Personnel Association Awards for Merit, to elect three Honorary Life Members, and to conduct the annual business meeting of the Association.

1959 Awards for Merit

President Hawthorne explained that the Executive Council in 1958 established the Public Personnel Association Award for Merit. Purpose of the award is to recognize and commend public officials who, in the conduct of their regular duties, have initiated, improved, supported, or executed outstanding programs of public personnel administration.

The 1959 presentation of the PPA Award for Merit, Mr. Hawthorne stated, is to honor the memory of Dr. Leonard D. White, who died in 1958. Dr. White was a distinguished teacher of public administration at the University of Chicago, a member of the United States Civil Service Commission, author of numerous studies in public administration, and an outstanding citizen, who made a great and lasting contribution to public administration in general and to personnel administration in particular. Dr. White's contributions to our field were recognized by this Association when he was elected an Honorary Life Member in 1952.

Mr. Hawthorne explained criteria for selection of Award recipients as follows:

The recipient of the PPA Award for Merit would need to show evidence of unusual personal qualities of discernment and leadership in promoting the adoption, extension and application of personnel practices which have contributed to improved public service; evidence of having instituted programs which show outstanding application of merit principles through modern personnel techniques; and, finally, evidence of leadership in programs which have resulted in unusually high morale and an especially dedicated work force, or which have brought prestige and recognition to employees in the agency in which he is employed.

President Hawthorne said the Executive Council had selected one representative each from a federal, a state, and a local agency.

Dr. Richard E. McArdle

The federal official selected to receive the 1959 PPA Award for Merit was Dr. Richard E. McArdle, Chief, United States Forest Service. President Hawthorne said:

Some years ago, the President of the United States spoke at the dedication of a new installation of the U. S. Forest Service in Montana. Two days before that he had been in Colorado, where he had been visited by a Forest Service cook who, hearing that the President would be seeing the boss of the Service, asked the President to give Mr. McArdle his greetings and best wishes. In commenting on this, the President said, "Where the cook and the private in the ranks wants to be remembered to the General . . . then you know it is a good outfit."

The United States Forest Service is indeed an "outfit" well and widely known as an outstanding government agency—both in terms of its services to the public and as an example of the very finest in career services.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

Its Chief, Richard E. McArdle, has been a career government forester for 35 years. He came to his present post in 1952, after having served for eight years as Assistant Chief in charge of the cooperative federal-state-private forestry programs. The early part of his career was devoted to forestry research, and he has worked in all major forest regions of the United States. He also served, for a time, as Dean of the School of Forestry at the University of Idaho.

Mr. McArdle's job is a big one. The Forest Service manages 181 million acres of publicly-owned national forests; it maintains one of the world's largest research organizations; it cooperates with other public and private agencies in promoting better management of some 400 million acres of privately-owned forest land.

The Forest Service has won national acclaim. Last summer *Time Magazine* called it "one of the U.S. taxpayers' greatest assets."

We think that the man who heads the Forest Service is also one of the taxpayers' real assets.

In the absence of Dr. McArdle, who was unavoidably detained on official business, Ernest C. Betts, Jr., Director of Personnel, U.S. Department of Agriculture, accepted the citation and Award plaque on Dr. McArdle's behalf.

In making the presentation Mr. Hawthorne cited Dr. McArdle for having brought to the U.S. Forest Service an articulate philosophy of positive personnel management that has made the Forest Service a model of government administration and employee morale; for having shown an awareness of the human potential in each employee; for having developed an attractive career service for competent people; and for having translated a forward-looking philosophy of management into operational practice.

Mr. Betts thanked the Association and its officers for the honor bestowed on Dr. McArdle, and on his behalf presented a short prepared address in response.¹

Foster B. Roser

Foster B. Roser, Director of Personnel, City of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, was

selected to receive an Award for Merit as a representative of municipal government. In presenting the Award, Mr. Hawthorne said:

Political scientists have discussed at length a post-World War II phenomenon in large urban centers in this country, often called—in somewhat blunt terms—the "break-up of the big-city machines." Perhaps there is no more widely renowned reform organization than the Committee of Seventy of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, that succeeded, in 1952, in securing a new charter for the City of Philadelphia which, along with other changes, ushered in a new era in personnel practices for the city.

It is this citizens' organization that nominated Foster B. Roser, Personnel Director for the City of Philadelphia, for the Award for Merit.

Mr. Roser came to the Philadelphia Personnel Department in 1952. He had served as Personnel Director for the City of Flint, Michigan, since 1938, except for the years of 1948 and 1949, when he worked with the Personnel Advisory Mission in Japan under the American Military government, assisting in setting up the examination section for Japan's new civil service system.

Intimately associated with the city's government, the Committee of Seventy was in a position to know whereof it spoke, when in 1957, it made a follow-up report on the Personnel Department. The City's merit system, it found, was operating successfully after five years' existence and was widely accepted. More than this, the Personnel Department had made definite progress in giving the city a program of truly modern personnel management.

The second recipient of the 1959 PPA Award for Merit is the person who, perhaps more than any other single person, was responsible for these accomplishments. . . . Mr. Foster Roser.

In presenting the Award plaque, Mr. Hawthorne cited Mr. Roser for his contribution as Deputy Director and Director of Personnel in Philadelphia because he rebuilt and revitalized its civil service system and restored the confidence of city officials, employees, and the public in the effectiveness of its operation; because he gave special attention to employee development and motivation, promotion policies, and the maintenance of an effective system of employer-employee relations; because he built an or-

¹ Editor's Note: For the full text of Dr. McArdle's address, together with those of the other two recipients of the Award for Merit, see pp. 24-32 in this issue.

ganization and developed a program that held the confidence of city officials, employees and the general public in Philadelphia.

William W. McDougall

The representative of state government chosen to receive an Award for Merit was William W. McDougall, Director of Personnel, State of Louisiana. Mr. Hawthorne said:

The present civil service system of the State of Louisiana came into being in June of 1953 as the result of a constitutional amendment passed in 1952, largely through the efforts of the Louisiana Civil Service League. A previous civil service system established under a reform administration in 1940 had been cast out in 1948.

With the passage of the amendment, the Civil Service Commission early in 1953 was faced with the crucial task of selecting a director for the newly-created Department of Civil Service who, in the space of a few months, could accomplish the seemingly superhuman task of installing and getting into operation a merit system to embrace more than 31,000 classified employees in 160 separate departments, commissions, boards, authorities, and institutions.

In naming William W. McDougall for this task, the Louisiana Civil Service Commission selected a person signally qualified. Mr. McDougall's entire professional career had been in the field of public personnel administration. He entered public service as an examiner with the United States Civil Service Commission in 1940. After 3½ years' service with the U.S. Navy in the Pacific theater in World War II, he returned to the Commission. At the time he accepted the job he now holds, he was Deputy Regional Director of the 10th U.S. Civil Service Region in New Orleans.

Since he became Director of the Louisiana Department of Civil Service in 1953, William McDougall has built for himself a record that has earned him recognition at home and nation-wide, and certainly merits that of the Public Personnel Association.

In presenting the Award plaque to Mr. McDougall, President Hawthorne cited him for leadership in the achievement of an outstanding program of public personnel administration in an environment where spoils

politics had traditionally ruled, with a minimum of delay; for development of a broadly conceived merit system as a dynamic force for betterment of governmental services to the people in Louisiana; for assistance in organizing a state personnel council, and the conduct of an annual state-wide personnel management program; for reducing governmental costs; and for providing fast, efficient service to departments of state government.

Honorary Life Memberships

President Hawthorne explained that the Executive Council had selected three persons as its nominees for Honorary Life Membership in the Public Personnel Association, in recognition of their contributions to the Association and its objectives. Nominees were: Albert H. Aronson, Chief, Division of State Merit Systems, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare; George T. Jackson, Assistant Deputy Minister, Department of Public Works of Canada; and Donald J. Sublette, Secretary and Chief Examiner, Civil Service Commission, Detroit, Michigan. On motion duly made and seconded, Messrs. Aronson, Jackson, and Sublette were unanimously elected.

Albert H. Aronson

President Hawthorne read the following citation:

As the leading figure in federal concern with state merit system administration, you have made an outstanding contribution to a unique and notably successful chapter in federal-state relations.

In your early career, following entrance in the federal service as an examiner in the Civil Service Commission, your leadership was quickly evidenced by your appointment as Assistant Director of Personnel of the Farm Credit Administration and later as the first Director of Personnel of the Social Security Board—one of only four or five such posts then established in Government and one in which your pioneering imagination and effort helped mark a milestone in public personnel administration.

Intermittently, during the two decades that you have served as Chief of the Division of State Merit Systems in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, you have distinguished yourself periodically in a number of ways: as a U. S. Army Officer during World War II, including

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

service in various key capacities with occupation forces in Africa, Italy, France, and Germany and receiving upon discharge four battle stars and the Legion of Merit Award; as a consultant on administration with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization; as a delegate to the European Productivity Agency conference on administration, along with numerous other consultant roles; as Director of the Office of Program Policy of the Salary Stabilization Board, where you received a Meritorious Service Award; and as a stimulating writer of numerous articles on personnel administration in professional journals. You are also the only person who has been honored by having held the positions of President in both the Public Personnel Association and the Society for Personnel Administration.

Standing out above all has been your leadership in the state merit system administration under federal grants-in-aid. Your receipt in 1959 of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Distinguished Service Award was in recognition of the significant impact which your thinking and insight have had upon the steady progress and extension of sound merit practices in the management of state functions throughout the nation.

In recognition of this unique record of achievement, of the personal qualities which endear you to the personnel profession everywhere, and of your many contributions within the councils of the Public Personnel Association, this organization is proud to award to you its Lifetime Honorary Membership.

Mr. Aronson expressed his appreciation in receiving the Honorary Life Membership.

George T. Jackson

President Hawthorne cited Mr. Jackson as follows:

Approximately three years ago, you were presented with the Golden Anniversary Award of this Association. You are the only Canadian now holding such an Award, which is presented for extensive contributions in the area of public personnel administration.

Throughout the years, you have played a prominent part in the activities of this Association and have held important executive posts which led to your election to the presidency in 1948 and your re-election in 1949. Your continued interest in the Association is evidenced by subsequent activities, resulting in the formation of the Ottawa Chapter in 1954, in which you served as its first president.

In Canada, where you are regarded as the elder statesman for personnel affairs in the Canadian public service, you have held the important position of Assistant Deputy Minister in the Department of Public Works since 1954. This appointment was a natural recognition of your success in the field of public personnel administration.

From 1942 to 1954, while holding the position of Director of Organization and Classification in the Civil Service Commission of Canada, you served on senior committees and on the National Joint Council of the Public Service of Canada, and acted in a consultative capacity to other jurisdictions in Canada. Your extensive range of interest and experience found expression in the development of the Suggestion Award Plan for the Public Service of Canada and the Public Personnel Institute. With such broad perspective, it is little wonder that you were chosen in 1952 to conduct a study of the administrative machinery of the departments of government in Burma.

Your genuine interest in people led you to associate yourself with the Overseas Friendship Society of Ottawa where, as vice-president, you concern yourself with the welfare of trainees visiting Canada under the auspices of the Colombo Plan and other international agencies.

This Association is proud to recognize for a second time the zealous way in which you have directed your ideas and philosophy to advance the cause of the merit principle by awarding you a Lifetime Honorary Membership.

Mr. Jackson accepted the Membership with his expression of deep appreciation.

Donald J. Sublette

President Hawthorne read the following citation:

A staunch advocate of the competitive merit principle in public service as a basic bulwark of representative government, you have epitomized adherence to such principle throughout your own career. Entering the public service through competitive examination with the Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission more than 34 years ago, you have obtained all positions in your career through open competition—Staff Examiner with the Alameda County Civil Service Commission; Field Investigator with the Personnel Classification Board, after nation-wide examination; supervisor of technical services with the Detroit Civil Service Commission, after nation-wide examination; and the position of Secretary and Chief Examiner of the Detroit Civil Service Commission, after open-competitive ex-

amination, where you have served since July 1, 1940.

Under your leadership the Detroit Commission has achieved national recognition for developing a modern classification program, effective recruitment, examination and placement programs, training programs, covering all levels of in-service training, coordinated employee safety programs, counseling services, and a modern records system, as well as an active inter-departmental personnel council.

Your intensive interest in public personnel administration has encompassed not only an effective personnel program concerned with maintaining a competitive merit system, but constantly improved services to management in achieving greater efficiency and economy in all phases of public administration.

You were responsible for initiating and developing the first professional training program in public personnel administration in the United States, when in 1930 you established a personnel apprentice classification and a planned training program for development of public personnel technicians and administrators. The effectiveness of this program is proven by the graduates of the training program who are serving in agencies from the East to the West Coast and at all levels of government.

Your original thinking with respect to testing and position classification has been so widely applied by personnel agencies at all levels of government that the results constitute a permanent but, unfortunately, impersonal testimonial to you. Your articles on various phases of public personnel administration are an important part of the standard literature in the field. As a consultant to various units of government, in several states, and as an instructor at Wayne University and the University of Michigan, you have stimulated interest in, and have contributed to an improved understanding of, personnel administration in government.

You have participated actively in the affairs of the Public Personnel Association at local, regional, and national levels. You organized the group that ultimately became the first chapter of the Public Personnel Association. Serving as Regional Chairman, as a member of the Executive Council, and on various committees of the Public Personnel Association, together with personal participation in conferences and programs, you have constantly worked to improve the status, services, and membership of the Public Personnel Association.

Throughout the years you have continued to be an inspiring, courageous, stimulating, and objective leader and have steadfastly resisted political pressures and the delusions of personnel fads.

Your devotion to the competitive merit principle, accepting its full application in advancing your own career, that of your associates, and that of the public personnel field, and your continued intensive interest in professional improvement of personnel administration, warrants this high honor which the Public Personnel Association confers upon you—Lifetime Honorary Membership.

Mr. Sublette said he too was deeply honored in being recognized for his long association with PPA by election to Honorary Life Membership.

Business Meeting

After a brief recess President Hawthorne called to order the 1959 business meeting of the Association. He first requested a report from the Nominating Committee, consisting of:

Chairman: DR. WILLIAM W. SHAW, Director of Personnel, Civil Service Department, New Orleans, Louisiana; and Associate Professor of Political Science, Tulane University.

Committee members: C. J. HESS, Deputy Director, Michigan State Civil Service Commission; HENRY J. MCFARLAND, Director, Municipal Service Division, New York State Civil Service Department; HUGH M. MORRISON, Chairman, British Columbia Civil Service Commission; and THEODORE L. SHARP, Secretary and Chief Examiner, Civil Service Commission, Glendale, California.

Election of Officers

On behalf of the Nominating Committee, Chairman Shaw gave the report of the committee as follows:

For President: JOSEPH W. HAWTHORNE, General Manager, Civil Service Commission, City of Los Angeles, California.

For Vacancies on the Executive Council: B. H. PETERSON, Personnel Director, City of Vancouver, British Columbia; and HARRY F. SMITH, Director of Personnel, New York State Department of Labor, Division of Employment.

Mr. Shaw then took the chair while the membership considered the nomination, which was duly seconded, of Mr. Hawthorne for President during 1960. There being no

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

further nominations, on motion duly made and seconded, the membership cast a unanimous ballot for Mr. Hawthorne.

Mr. Hawthorne resumed the chair and thanked the membership for its expression of confidence. Mr. Shaw then nominated Mr. Peterson for membership on the Executive Council, which was duly seconded. There being no further nominations, on motion duly made and seconded, the membership cast a unanimous ballot for Mr. Peterson.

Mr. Hawthorne accepted Mr. Shaw's nomination of Mr. Smith for membership on the Executive Council, which was duly seconded. There being no further nominations, on motion duly made and seconded, the membership cast a unanimous ballot for Mr. Smith.

Director's Report

President Hawthorne called on PPA Director Kenneth O. Warner to comment on the Association's program. He said members will receive a full report on 1959 activities shortly after the first of the year.

Mr. Warner said the San Francisco meeting marked a milestone in the life of one PPA staff member—Jeremiah J. Donovan, Associate Director, who completed twenty years of service with the Association. The membership roundly applauded Mr. Donovan for the loyal and effective service he has rendered the Association over the years.

The Director pointed out that membership and income in all categories continue ahead of last year. He cited some of the highlights of 1959, apart from regular services, as follows: publication of a Guide to PPA Services; publication of the 1959 PPA Membership Directory—the Public Personnel Blue Book; publication of two reports, one on sick leave and the other on longevity pay; special consulting services to state and local personnel agencies.

Consultation and service rendered the state of Kentucky in preparing several hundred qualifying examinations for 12,500 employees, the Director said, "strengthens the ability of the Association to provide broader and better services to the entire membership; it does not interfere with PPA's regular service program, provides some additional

income, and represents a professional advancement for the Association."

Although Association income and membership continue to grow, future commitments for office space, rising costs for goods, services, and personnel will call for prudent financial management in the months ahead.

Reports of PPA Committees

President Hawthorne called for and received brief reports from various committees as follows:

Committee on Personnel Function. Chairman Tom Page stated that in January his committee had submitted to the Executive Council a draft of a research proposal. The proposal is designed to provide factual information about the experience and effectiveness of civil service and personnel agencies under different forms of organization. An effort will be made to obtain foundation assistance to pursue the proposal.

Disaster Preparedness. Mr. Harry Petrie reported for Chairman Virgil Couch on activities of the Committee on Role of the Personnel Office in a Disaster Preparedness Program. The committee was responsible for arranging an exhibit at the conference and making available a variety of publications useful in informing and educating employees about methods of personal and home survival planning. The 1958 Report of the Committee was given wide circulation during the past year; in addition to PPA members it has been sent to governors, county commissioners, and mayors throughout the U.S.

The committee has deputized its chairman, Virgil Couch, to prepare an up-dated draft of the report for distribution to members in 1960.

Committee on Affiliation. Mr. Arnold McDermott, chairman of the recently created Committee on Affiliation with the Public Personnel Association, reported for his committee. This committee, he explained, is concerned with developing cooperative relations between the parent organization and regions and chapters and also in promoting the affiliation of individuals with PPA through membership. The committee met during the conference and noted that the membership campaign it is conducting with

aid from the Secretariat has already produced some favorable results. The chairman pointed out that the committee believes best results can be obtained when members in chapters and agencies assume active responsibility for promoting individual membership in PPA through personal contact in their respective places of work.

Survey of PPA Policies and Programs. Mr. Hawthorne explained that he had appointed members of the Southern California Chapter of PPA to this committee so they would work jointly on the project. Purpose of the committee was to develop a questionnaire for consideration of the Executive Council that would seek responses from members about PPA policies, program, and practices.

Stewart H. Marsh reported for the committee, stating a questionnaire had been prepared and submitted for Council consideration. One recommendation was:

The determination of the attitude of members on matters of policy, philosophy, aims and organization is important to democratic administration of the Association and should be done. Such determination should prove to be a valuable guide to the Executive Council.

Other recommendations related to procedural matters of issuing a questionnaire and obtaining an analysis and report by the committee for Executive Council consideration.

Role of the Departmental Personnel Office. A progress report was given by committee chairman Achille R. Albouze, Personnel Officer, California State Department of Social Welfare. The committee has compiled a roster of more than a thousand departmental personnel officers in various governmental agencies. Through the cooperation of the library of the United States Civil Service Commission, a bibliography is being prepared on the functions and duties of departmental personnel offices. As a major project, the committee will soon send out a comprehensive questionnaire on the functions and responsibilities of departmental personnel offices. Through the cooperation of the Division of State Merit Systems of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, this survey will cover depart-

mental personnel offices in state agencies participating in the federal grant-in-aid program. Returns from the survey will be analyzed and published in a report scheduled to be completed during the spring of 1960.

Resolutions

Chairman Wayne Higbee, on behalf of the Resolutions Committee, submitted resolutions which were unanimously adopted as follows:

Expression of sincere thanks to Mr. Harry Albert, to members of the conference host committee, and to the many private and public organizations that extended such a cordial welcome and provided so well for the convenience and entertainment of the members and so contributed to the success and enjoyment of the conference;

Expression of appreciation to President Joseph Hawthorne, to other members of the Executive Council, and the staff of the Secretariat for their leadership and for the excellent conduct of the affairs of the organization;

Expression of appreciation to the Sheraton-Palace Hotel for the excellent facilities and services of its staff, which were uniformly efficient and courteous and contributed to the success of the conference.

A Word from President Hawthorne

In closing the business meeting, President Hawthorne said:

I purposely delayed my remarks, to see how much time would be left. I think three minutes is about time enough. It's a very enviable position first to be elected and then to state your platform. Of course, I'm very happy about it. First of all, I want to thank this group for the honor of serving out a second term. Then, I'd like to state here, if you don't already know it, that there are certain things I believe in and that I want to work for. I don't know whether there's any provision for recall of presidents, but if there is, I'll take the risk.

I believe that we should be a little more militant than we have been, a little more aggressive in expressing our views on some things in which most of us believe. For one thing, this organization ought to be expanded internationally, and I think we should extend the hand of friendship to our neighbors to the South as we have to our

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

neighbors to the North. We and Canada have gotten along so well together all these years that our international character might well be extended further. I believe that whether or not another region should be formed for our Latin American neighbors should at least be explored.

I think further. . . . I'm a little disturbed in that we are running competition with a very fine organization, the Society for Personnel Administration, and I would like to extend and intensify activity that I know has been going on in the past on this matter. But nothing actually has been accomplished, and I certainly think we should explore every possibility of affiliation or merger with that group.

I think we ought to give a little more consideration to types of membership. This organization started out, as you know, as a group of civil service commissioners. I think we've taken it away from them, and that we've sort of downgraded their position in the organization. I would like to see some type of membership for commissioners which would give them more recognition and more responsibility than they now have. I would like also to see a type of membership which would give technicians a little more recognition than they now receive, a little professionalization. I think a person might be much more interested in joining the Association if he knew his name listed in the Directory meant a certain degree of internationally recognized competence.

I think we ought to be a little more militant about extending our merit systems downward, upward, and outward. I don't go along with these so-called experts that come along and tell us we should exempt policy-making jobs. Neither do I go along with the people who tell us that the spoils system is dead and we might as well go to

some new type of organization. I do not think we should abolish the independent type of commission. I do not think that the independent type of commission has failed. I don't believe its failure is the cause of the movement to abolish it. I think rather that it has succeeded and its success is the cause of the movement to abolish it.

I'd like to go further into the report that was made by the local Chapter in Los Angeles recommending a membership poll on our organization policies. I would like to see democracy in our organization even though they railroad in the president each year. I would like also to see some change that would provide for more expression from members as to presidential selection, but that's another matter. I do think it would be valuable to us, as was pointed out by Stewart Marsh, not only as a guide to the Council, but for the entire membership, if we could find out just what we do think in the way of policy. Do we believe that we should exempt upper-level positions? Do we believe we should abolish the independent commission? If we do, that's where the organization stands, but I think it would be worthwhile to find out. Since we have developed various attitude measurement techniques, I think we should at least try to find out what we think about some of the issues with which we as a professional organization should be concerned.

That's at least part of the platform. Thank you all for staying so long, and I hope to see you all next year.

* * *

There being no further business, President Hawthorne adjourned the 1959 business meeting of the Public Personnel Association at 3:30 P.M.



around the personnel world

Cooperative Supervision: A Technique for the Adaptation of Skills

Allan R. Richards

Perhaps the most recurring of all personnel problems is supervision. In merit systems and spoils systems, in public management and in private management, in large enterprises and small enterprises, supervision is necessary. Often the most effective supervision comes about only with time and through development. So it was with "cooperative supervision," a technique to encourage the adaptation of skills, which is our present concern and which is best appreciated in its historical context.

The Contract and Its Goals

Recently the University of Tennessee began its fourth year of participation in a tripartite contract whose other parties include the International Cooperation Administration and the Universidad Mayor de San Andrés in La Paz, Bolivia. Among its other contractual objectives, the University is obligated to assist the Universidad in offering in-service training courses in public administration to Bolivian government employees and in conducting research and technical assistance. The Escuela de Administración Pública is the division that has been assigned to undertake the Universidad's obligations.

The Initial Effort

When the program began, the University had little choice of method available. Although highly knowledgeable in the specialized fields of public administration, all of the University's American advisors were not sufficiently familiar with Spanish to use it with the facility demanded by superior teaching and research; neither were they familiar with public administration in Bolivia. On the other hand, the Bolivian professors employed by the Escuela de Administración Pública lacked almost any knowledge of public administration techniques. Indeed, had the Bolivians been skilled in public administration, little need for the University's or for ICA's participation in the program would have existed.

But the Bolivian personnel of the Escuela could and did contribute at least three other necessary ingredients to the development of the program. First, as a condition of employment, each person had to have some knowledge of English—and the more the better. Although even now only one Bolivian professor approaches true bilingualism, all were capable of understanding and of making themselves understood, although at times only with difficulty. Second, each was educated in an academic discipline related to the area of public administration—for example, law or economics—that was to become his specialty. Third, each Bolivian professor was natively bright. The combination of language ability, education, and brightness meant that the Bolivian professor could learn with a relative degree of ease.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

With these assets and with these liabilities of the American and Bolivian personnel, methods of transmitting the necessary technical knowledge were limited. Either the Americans taught in English and the Bolivians interpreted the English words, or they taught in rudimentary and inadequate Spanish. The research and technical assistance aspects of the program were necessarily undertaken in the same manner. But meanwhile the seeds for improvement were sown. The Americans were learning Spanish, as well as Bolivian government and culture. And Bolivians were sent to the United States for a year's intensive training in their public administration specialties.

The Second Phase

When the Bolivians returned from the United States, the initial American effort—characterized almost solely by active direction—ebbed, and the second phase—characterized by technical assistance—began to flow.

Gradually, some Bolivians educated in the United States and accustomed to classroom techniques through their role as interpreters began to offer their own training courses and to contribute to the research activities, but only under general supervision. Meanwhile, the Americans, side-by-side with their Bolivian colleagues, offered the same or similar courses, but now with better Spanish and greater knowledge of Bolivian Government. The presence of the Bolivian colleague at the training session was still required, partially to interpret the variety of questions asked and contributions offered and partially further to educate him.

But these means did not produce ends as advantageous as might have been expected. Several factors contributed to a search for improvement.

Limitations of the American

The effectiveness of both American and Bolivian personnel was limited for several reasons. For the Americans, the language remained the great obstacle to their being as effective in Bolivia as they would have been in the United States—especially in the in-service training courses. Even the skill of persons with undergraduate majors in Spanish and with two years experience in Bolivia left much to be desired. To plan what one has to say in a strange tongue and then to say it is one thing; to understand random comments and reply to them impromptu is quite another thing. Besides, the very nature of instruction—especially in-service training that seeks to introduce literally unheard-of techniques—not only requires the ability to make a complicated point one time; it is also necessary to make it two or three or four times with the use of different words and different examples. This ability requires either a native tongue or bilingualism.

The second liability of the American was his still inadequate knowledge of Bolivian culture and government. A technique for efficiency in American culture may be no more than a technique for disruption in another culture. Time-clock punching may produce punctuality in the United States. In a country where any given hour is only a point in time—give or take sixty minutes—time is not money, and a time clock is not likely to change basic attitudes toward it. The oral recitation of ideas does not produce changes in culture the way the printing press produces changes on pieces of paper. The American lacked examples with which to explain his points and knowledge of the suitability of his ideas.

Compounding the difficulty of the American's search for greater effectiveness is the fact that his total stay in Bolivia is apt to be only two years. When he has become most effective, he is likely to leave. Of course, usually, nothing prevents his extending his tour for another two years—nothing, that is, except personal reasons or his desire to

return to greater comforts than La Paz offers. But this turnover, as always, produces inefficiency.

Limitations of the Bolivian

As a partner to the program's objectives, the Bolivian's effectiveness was also limited. First, even one year of intensive training in the United States is no substitute for the three or four years of graduate study or for the many years of experience working at administration that the American technician is likely to have. The Bolivian still lacked technical knowledge.

Second, since Bolivian higher education tends to be theoretical and since—almost out of necessity—the year in the United States tends to be spent in classroom academic training, rather than practical work experience, the Bolivian professor was likely to lack experience. He was apt to have been inexperienced in teaching, inexperienced in the practice of public administration, inexperienced in public administration research techniques.

Finally, under the conditions in which the program had developed, when the Bolivian first began to offer his own in-service training courses, he tended only to paraphrase what he had learned. He was likely to use the American examples he had read in American sources in order to illustrate his points. Although these may have been significant for the training of Americans, unfortunately they had little meaning for Bolivian government employees, who are not well acquainted with the United States. He was likely to argue for changes and concepts that have been derived from the American governmental pattern and that he had been taught to accept because of his study under American teachers using American materials. Thus, he unwittingly was likely to argue for the post-audit of governmental accounts by an agency attached to the legislature, without recognizing that—unlike the American Congress—the Bolivian Congress (like most Latin American legislatures) is a most effective tool of the executive.

Thus, in this second phase of the program's development, it came to be recognized that neither the American by himself, nor the Bolivian by himself, was capable of achieving the program's immediate objectives. Unless the Men from Mars could help, some new technique needed to be devised.

Cooperative Supervision

"Cooperative supervision" was developed as the needed technique. But what does cooperative supervision mean?

It is the process by which Americans and Bolivians deal with each other to accomplish their program objectives. As ICA's goals have shifted from "technical assistance" to "technical cooperation," so the Tennessee program's methods have shifted from "technical assistance" to "cooperative supervision."

At present, the Bolivian professors are in charge of the in-service training courses, and the Americans none. The Bolivians make all the decisions, and the Americans none.

What, then, is the rôle of the American technician? In practice, he becomes more of a staff advisor than either a line or functional supervisor. In the planning, preparation, action, and evaluation stages of any task performed by a Bolivian professor, his influence is available.

When a Bolivian professor prepares a general outline for an in-service training course or a specific outline for a lecture, he and the American technician discuss it prior to its use. The American raises questions about the relevancy of the material to the point at hand, provides information where the knowledge of the Bolivian seems either fuzzy or

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

lacking, and probes the Bolivian mind into translating American technical precepts into workable Bolivian concepts. After this exploratory conference, the Bolivian professor presents the material that he decides to use in the way that he decides to use it. During the presentation, the American usually visits the training room, where he is "on tap" rather than "on top." He acts as a resource consultant and, like the prescription for the behavior of children, does not speak unless he is spoken to. After the presentation, the American and the Bolivian evaluate the training period; they pick each other's minds in order to improve future performances rather than to criticize past ones.

Thus, through the technique of cooperative supervision, the government employee being trained receives the best that both the American and the Bolivian have to offer, at least theoretically.

Advantages of Cooperative Supervision

For immediate program objectives, cooperative supervision bridges the rather large gap between the technical knowledge of the American and the cultural, governmental, and linguistic knowledge of the Bolivian. It is a method that encourages Bolivian professors in a Bolivian University to teach Bolivian public administration to Bolivians. It fosters the *studied adaptation, rather than the casual adoption, of technique.*

Cooperative supervision will also be greatly instrumental in furthering the long-run program objectives. These are, as in all ICA-sponsored activities, to train subjects of the host government to do a job effectively in the shortest period of time possible, then to get out of the country and leave the job to the host government and its subjects.

For the American, cooperative supervision means that his effectiveness begins almost as soon as his arrival in Bolivia, for he can efficiently do his work in English. Use of the Spanish language, though still advantageous, becomes less necessary, for the American deals almost exclusively with his Bolivian colleagues who can communicate in English. And he can learn both Spanish and Bolivian culture and government more easily than in the earlier phases of the program, because of his constant exposure to them in a greater number of training sessions where he acts as resource consultant.

For the Bolivian, cooperative supervision means that he has assumed ultimate responsibility for the success of the program. This assumption of responsibility leads, in turn, to a greater feeling of importance and to a heightened interest in the program itself. Cooperative supervision, itself a type of in-service training program, enables the Bolivian to learn more techniques more completely, more accurately, and more quickly.

Thus, cooperative supervision offers multiple advantages: to the immediate and to the long-range program objectives, to the American technician, and to the Bolivian professor. If it offers corresponding disadvantages, they have not yet appeared. But it is not a panacea to resolve all differences between generalist and specialist.

A Word of Caution

Although cooperative supervision is working admirably for the University of Tennessee at the Universidad Mayor de San Andrés, its haphazard, immediate, and widespread use is as little advocated as it is likely rapidly to be adopted.

Clearly, the stage is not set for the adoption of cooperative supervision until both groups—the generalists and the specialists—are in accord about fundamental program objectives and also about basic means with which to accomplish them. Differences about either primary objectives or means can deter program purposes. As with the inauguration of most techniques, the time must be right for the curtain to rise effectively.

In order to adapt facilely, rather than to adopt unwittingly, the cultural generalist (in this case the Bolivian) cannot be ignorant of the techniques he is adapting. He must have at least a general background in them. Only with this background, with his general cultural knowledge, and with the assistance of the technical specialist (in this case the American), can he adapt effectively.

Most cooperative situations are explosively charged with human relations. When one involves the usual generalist-specialist conflict on a cross-cultural stage, the charge becomes even more deadly. Thus, in order to avoid communication barriers, discussion of past performances should concern themselves only with the improvement of future ones, especially because the deed is done and future deeds cannot undo past ones, and because the future is always longer than the present and the past. Excessive or harsh comments, regardless of how well intended, can stifle the creativity of the generalist—the creativity so necessary for the adaptation of ideas.

Its Applicability to Other Situations

Although consideration of the advantages of cooperative supervision might be useful in all generalist-specialist situations, it is not directly applicable. In their conventional relationship, such as that between a line officer (generalist) in the field and a staff officer (specialist) responsible to him, the generalist has formal responsibility for the program. In the relationship between generalist and specialist under cooperative supervision, the specialist has formal responsibility for the program.

Doubtlessly, cooperative supervision is likely to be proved more useful in programs abroad, where the native tongues of the generalist and the specialist are different. Where the goal is to produce imaginative results, to integrate different skills, perhaps its adaptation may prove useful at home, for example, in the administration of scientific programs, where terminological difficulties are encountered even within the same language structure. Perhaps it may prove useful for surmounting cross-cultural differences even within the same country, in circumstances wherein the technical specialist has the responsibility, but not the knowledge or the ability to accomplish his broader objectives.

Though its application be limited, certainly its utility ought to be explored wherever it is likely to be applicable. Its advantages in circumstances such as those confronting the University of Tennessee at the Universidad Mayor de San Andrés in La Paz are multiple.

EDITOR'S NOTE

In the July, 1959 issue of *Public Personnel Review*, "Around the Personnel World" included an abstract of an article, "Reflections on Whitleyism in English Local Government," abstracted from the Spring, 1958 issue of *Public Administration*. Through oversight, the abstract failed to mention that the author of the original article was Leo Kramer, Assistant to the President of the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees.

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS of personnel policy and practice seldom yield "cut-and-dried" answers. The editors have posed the question below to several persons representing different points of view to give readers guidelines in formulating their own policies.

THE QUESTION

"What do you think is a reasonable, enforceable policy regarding restrictions on political activities by civil service employees?"

Says CECIL E. GOODE . . .

Executive Director, National Civil Service League

The question of political activities by civil servants presents a basic conflict between the principle of democratic action and the principle of efficient government. In a democracy such as ours, every citizen has the obligation to inform himself on issues facing his local government, his state government and his national government. Moreover, he is exhorted to make his opinions and desires known, to see that good people with whom he agrees stand for offices, and to vote as his conscience dictates. This is the model. Of course we far from reach it. We want responsible and efficient government, but experience has shown that we do not get this kind of government when it is staffed and run on a political spoils basis. Under a spoils system, welfare of the people and efficiency are not the main goals. Instead, the goal is the good of the party and of its leaders.

Civil servants often know more about government and its problems than most other people, but anti-politics prohibitions fetter them so that they cannot be the political force they are capable of being. On the other hand, if civil servants are at the mercy of the politicians, they may be required to pay assessments for the privilege of working, to ring door-bells in elections whether they want to or not, and they can

be prevailed upon by politicians to do things and grant special favors in carrying out their duties that are not in the best interests of the public. These serious faults of political spoils led to the civil service movement and, more recently, to strict limitations on political activities by civil servants.

Because of the conflicting goals of citizenship on the one hand and good government on the other, public employees have to submit to limitations on their political activities that are not required of other citizens. But we can expect, hopefully, to lessen these restrictions as we become more sophisticated in government. Unfortunately, we are not at the stage in most governments where we can do that now. First, we will have to establish a tradition of the civil service wherein its members are professionally competent in their fields and at the same time take their citizenship seriously—a civil service whose members have shown that they can work within the policies of either party regardless of their own preferences, and who will resign if the policies are so obnoxious that they cannot perform their duties efficiently and in good conscience.

In the meantime, these provisions seem appropriate to guide the political activities of civil servants in helping to maintain an effective balance between the rights of citizenship and the obligations of the civil service:

1. As a citizen, every civil servant has the right to vote and express his preference

for party, candidates and public policies, but he can do no active campaigning and cannot participate in political management.

2. An exception to the principle stated above should be in the case of non-partisan local elections unless the civil servant is a local employee. The practice of the federal government in this regard should be extended throughout the country. Now, federal employees are permitted to participate in non-partisan campaigns only in certain specified locations. It should be recognized, of course, that participation in non-partisan efforts should not in any sense interfere with the civil servant's official work either in fact or appearance.
3. Appointments, promotions, demotions, and other personnel actions should be based on demonstrated competence, and not on any political, religious, racial or other considerations that have no bearing on real ability to do the work.
4. No civil servant should be permitted to make any assessments or collections of funds for political purposes. Furthermore, no civil servant should be permitted to pay any assessments or contributions for political purposes to any other civil servant or government official. He should, nevertheless, be permitted to make political contributions of his own free will to collectors who have no official connection whatever with the government. The purpose here is to permit political contributions by government workers, because that is the way party affairs are conducted in this country. But there can be no coercion or seeming coercion from within the government, and all possibility for building up political machines with the use of government employees must be obliterated.

I should like to hear some discussion of the possibility of permitting civil servants to participate in political activities at any level of government but their own. This would mean that a federal worker could participate in political activities at his local level and at the state level; state workers could participate in local and national activities;

and local workers could participate in federal and state activities.

Of course, we would need to rule out any political activities that would reflect adversely on the work, or in which there could be an actual or seeming conflict of interest. Furthermore, no civil servant should be in a position to bring pressure on his colleagues or subordinates to vote or carry on political efforts, even though such efforts are directed toward another level of government. I am not sure this idea would work, but it may be worth exploring. It would permit active participation in politics at governmental levels other than where one works and presumably could have a personal axe to grind.

Says SAMUEL H. S. HUGHES . . .

Chairman, Civil Service Commission of Canada

Before addressing myself to the general principles involved in a discussion of the political activities of civil servants, I should say that in Canada the law, as far as employees of the federal government are concerned, has for the past 40 years prohibited their engaging in any partisan work in connection with any federal or provincial election, or from any dealing with any money for party funds. The penalty for infraction is dismissal.

There are similar laws in many of the provinces, and even where these are not explicit the prohibition and the penalty established in the case of federal employees by statute during this period is re-enforced by custom derived from English practice over a much longer period. Cases of disobedience are not unknown in recent years, but they have been so rare and so liable to condign punishment, with the approval of all parties, that it may be safely said that the problem of civil service participation in the political activities of federal and provincial parties is virtually non-existent in Canada.

I can only indicate my agreement with the universal view and the futility of advocating any relaxation of its strictness. There remains to be considered the less controversial field of municipal politics, in which civil servants from time to time find themselves

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

engaged as candidates for elected office and as members of municipal representative bodies.

It is often said that this type of political activity is justifiable on the grounds that no conflict of duty is likely to arise, and that if it does, the head of the department of government in which a civil servant so engaged is employed can decide on the merits of any particular situation whether such activity shall continue or not. There are, in my opinion, two objections to this view:

1. The scope and activity of municipal government is growing daily and impinges to an increasing extent upon the proper sphere of activity of government at the federal and provincial or state level. It is seldom that a year passes when a municipal council does not feel called upon to make representations to governments at higher levels on questions of taxation, revenue and assistance for municipal services. Any such situation can, and indeed should raise a question in the mind of any civil servant who is a member of such a body as to whether his duty lies in supporting what he believes to be the interests of his constituents at the possible expense of the larger community represented by the government which employs him.
2. The decision to be made by a cabinet minister or other departmental head having disciplinary control over such a civil servant might well be a difficult one to make, and, when made, might expose the employee's superior to justifiable attack on the grounds that he had deprived the electors of a municipality of the services of their representative on political grounds.

Then again, it may be asked, is not the civil service a full-time job? Once a civil servant is elected to municipal office, his commitment becomes much greater than mere attendance at meetings of the body to which he is elected. There are committee meetings, tours of inspection, delegations, and a host of other activities which normally preclude salaried employees in industry and commerce from participation. Why should the state be any more generous with the

time of employees than a private employer, particularly when his remuneration is derived from his fellow taxpayers? The principle that a civil servant should give his full time to his work is generally regarded as incontestable. It may also be said that a civil servant is obliged to devote to rest and recreation sufficient time to make him an efficient and alert employee in working hours. On this ground alone, serious objection might be taken to a subsidiary pre-occupation as onerous as municipal office.

Every so often political parties enter the field of municipal politics wearing the same labels as they display in the federal and state arenas. This is now the case in Great Britain and in Australia and may, for all I know, be the case in the United States. If the civil service association to which the employee belongs becomes affiliated with a trades union group, this group may decide to support one of the parties which is contending for office in the state which employs him. These are two further examples of how a civil servant may become involved in political associations which inevitably involve him either passively or actively in partisan politics.

To say that a civil servant should not be deprived of the type of political activity which other people enjoy is an over-simplification of the argument for limited participation. In practice, only the self-employed enjoy the right of participation in politics to any considerable extent, and private employers for a variety of obvious reasons do not permit their employees either to run for office or to offer active assistance to any particular party.

This, of course, is not to say that civil servants cannot vote and otherwise enjoy their rights as citizens. The secret ballot has long ago secured to every man and woman the right to make their influence felt on the political issues of the day. They can even make free expression of their opinions either verbally or in writing, but this they do at their peril, fully aware of the fact that such expression may result in loss of employment in any field of endeavour including that of the public service.

The most important consideration in any view of civil service affairs is the independ-

ence of the service itself, and this can be achieved only by guaranteeing complete security from the fear of political reprisals. Such security can only be justified by the complete impartiality of the civil servant in the performance of his duties. Any form of political entanglement at any level of government is bound to compromise this standard of impartiality and render the civil servant vulnerable to political attack.

In my view, therefore, the proper solution is the simple one. No political activity in the partisan sense should be undertaken by any civil servant, nor should he be a candidate for elected office at any level of government. No civil servant should be a member of any organization or association which has political affiliations or pledges support to any political party at any level of government. There is no doubt that such a policy is enforceable, and for the foregoing reasons I think it is desirable.

Says NELSON WATKINS . . .

Executive Secretary, Ohio Civil Service Employees Association

Cogent arguments can be advanced for or against the right of civil service employees to engage in political activity. There should be no question as to the right. The question is how far should they be permitted to go, and what constitutes the prudent exercise of the right.

If an individual enters the ministry, he knows his personal conduct will be subjected to certain restrictions. Perhaps he will be denied the use of tobacco or alcoholic beverages. To engage in partisan political activity may enrage his congregation or his parishioners. Therefore, he avoids any conduct which may bring his profession or his church into disrepute. Technically, he is free to do anything any other citizen does, yet he knows there are some things he cannot do with propriety. Such disciplines, we believe, are essential to the welfare of the ministry.

Civil service employees must be sufficiently pliable in their political convictions and attitudes to adjust to changing political policies. They do not make policy, but certainly they are often responsible for its

effective execution. Participation in partisan political activity tends to make such adjustments more difficult. Reasonable restrictions in this area are beneficial to the maintenance of a merit system.

Civil service employees enjoy some advantages not inherent in other types of employment. Among these are tenure, absence of work stoppages, no lost time due to inventories, retooling, etc. Nor are they harried by mass-production techniques common in industry. In return for these and other advantages, they should not object to relatively minor restrictions on political activity for the good of the service.

In Ohio, civil service employees may, of course, vote. Further, they may express their political opinions freely; belong to a political organization or club, except they may not hold office in, nor preside over a meeting of a political organization; display a political sticker on their automobile; or even make a voluntary contribution to a political fund. Thus, their political activity is not restricted unreasonably.

If a civil service employee could seek an elective office, or campaign openly for an individual candidate for political office while holding a position in the civil service, his position would become untenable if he failed of election to the office he sought, or if the candidate whose election he espoused was defeated. He simply cannot be, in our judgment, a good civil service employee and a politician simultaneously. He should not be permitted to invade the politician's domain, nor the politician his. This being the case, certainly a civil service employee must be protected against political exploitation, but he must also understand he forfeits the protection when he chooses to violate this concept. He cannot have his cake and eat it.

Like every other element in the work force, civil service employees have economic and social interests. To serve these, many are organized and all should be. Their organizations have professional staffs. Such staffs are paid from revenues derived from membership dues. Organization staff employees are not restricted by statutes or regulations which govern the political conduct of civil service workers. Even so, like

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

the ministry, there are certain self-imposed political disciplines to which most of them adhere for the common good. Accordingly, most independent employee organizations refrain from endorsing candidates for public office; disdain contributions to political campaigns out of organization funds; do not publish or distribute literature on behalf of any candidate for public office; or permit membership rosters to be used for political purposes.

Activities by employee organizations in the political arena are limited usually to the support of, or opposition to, legislation or proposed constitutional amendments beneficial or inimical to the interests of the membership. They may, and frequently do, make objective and confidential reports to the membership concerning the attitude of legislators or other public officials toward the interests of public employees. This is the medium through which civil service employees may find escape for political emotions not otherwise lawfully available to them.

It is our position, therefore, that the very nature of the civil service is such that politics and civil service cannot be intermixed any more than oil and water can. Civil service employees should be willing to abide by reasonable restrictions on their political freedom in order to preserve the merit system and thereby give to the people the best possible type of efficient and effective government.

Says C. K. WETTENGEL . . .

Director, Bureau of Personnel, State of Wisconsin

The participation of public employees in active politics and political pressures helped to bring about the passage of merit system or civil service legislation years ago. With the passing of time a complacency has developed in many jurisdictions concerning the possibility of political interference with the merit system. The "it can no longer happen here" attitude has led to a false sense of security.

No one should question the right of any citizen, public employee or not, to participate in promoting the political cause he

feels is just. When such participation takes the form of unduly influencing public employees to act in a certain manner through fear of security or reprisal, then controls must be exercised. The denial to any employee of his right to vote as he thinks best must not be denied.

In most jurisdictions this right has not been denied. However, instances of pressures for political contributions without the right to choose are still in evidence. A few years ago a high-ranking political figure told a group of civil service administrators that any employee who did not contribute to the party in power had no right to job security. Wherever a public employee's very tenure of employment depends on allegiance to the political power in office there is no "merit system."

One of the big questions in this field is the extent to which employee organizations should be permitted to participate in political activities. While it is generally understood that industrial unions have not been able to "deliver the vote" of their members to any party, the situation is somewhat different in public service. After all, the industrial unions can only influence persons who can pass legislation in their favor, and they are not delivering a vote against their employer. To the contrary, employee associations are actually directly influencing their employer where they support a particular political party.

In Wisconsin the law prohibits union organizations from contributing to political parties as such. This is good legislation as it applies to the employees' association, and they actually feel that it is a protection for them as well as the merit system. While the employees' association publishes the voting record of members of the legislature on employee bills, it does not editorially or in other ways endorse particular candidates.

There is, of course, an inherent danger in endorsing any particular candidate. He may be defeated at the polls, and the organization then would be on the defensive with the party that is elected. To say the least, it would be a most uncomfortable situation. It would appear to this writer that a political activity on the part of the employee organizations to the extent that they endorse par-

ticular parties or candidates is contrary to the restrictions placed on the employee.

One of the most heartening happenings in recent years has been the increasing participation of public employees in community and political activities. Our efforts to be of service outside of our working hours increase the respect of our fellow citizens for public service.

Says PAUL G. STEINBICKER . . .

Member, Missouri Personnel Advisory Board, and Professor of Political Science, St. Louis University

What was a reasonable, enforceable policy regarding restraints on political activities by civil service employees fifty years ago, in a particular jurisdiction, may no longer be either reasonable or enforceable. Generalizations applicable to all times—past, present, future—and to all jurisdictions—national, state and local—are never very appropriate. Nevertheless, certain basic developments over the years, more far-reaching in some jurisdictions than in others, may be of some help in reaching an answer to the question.

First, all of us will surely agree that the imposition of restrictions on the political freedom of civil service employees was never an end in itself. Rather, it was a means, designed to eliminate undesirable effects, and to produce desirable ones. The undesirable effect to be eliminated has always been the clearly reprehensible use of public funds (which pay the salaries of public employees) to promote the partisan interests of a political party. On the desirable side, it was hoped that the public service itself could be improved by providing continuity of employment and by enabling "neutral" career employees to serve different party masters with equal loyalty.

Perhaps even more important, it was also expected that restrictions on political activity of public employees would protect the employees themselves against an enforced "lug," and against punitive action to be taken by political heads of one party when employees were active in another party. Have these effects been realized? It appears to me that, by and large, in most

jurisdictions, by the present time, an affirmative answer must be given.

Possibly the restrictions imposed have played a major part in producing the desirable results anticipated. Even so, this fact, assumed to be a fact, does not justify a continuation of the restrictions. If it can be argued that the good results will remain, *without* the restrictions, the conclusion seems inescapable that the restrictions should be eliminated, since no one would argue that they are desirable in themselves.

A reasonable case can be made in support of this position. For one thing, political parties are no longer everywhere in the hands of the same patronage-hungry "politicians" as they were fifty years ago. In many jurisdictions, at all levels, party leaders get their strength and support from other sources than ward heelers on public payrolls.

Another point: public employment is no longer the attraction it was for job-hunters some years ago. It is now more true than ever that there are few sinecures in the public service. All employees are expected to put in a good day's work for their pay. Thus, other types of employment, perhaps with shorter hours and better pay, are in a better competitive position for the job-seeker than the traditional "soft" job on the public payroll. As a result, politicians, even of the old school, can no longer win the support of others by holding out the bait of a snap job in the public service.

There is another basic factor to be considered in this connection. We have matured considerably as a people in recognizing the difference between a position and its occupant. Any human being in any position, public or private, has many interests beyond his position. His church affiliations, cultural interests, athletic interests, as well as numerous others, may be, and usually do vary from those of fellow employees. Yet all such employees can and do work together while on the job.

Wouldn't it be appropriately mature for us generally to recognize that different party interests, preferences, and of course off-the-job activities, may also exist without making it impossible for on-the-job teamwork and co-operation? As a matter of fact, we do

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

find instances of such teamwork and cooperation in our legislative bodies, where partisan differences may be very keen.

Still another consideration is material to this discussion. In many instances restrictions on political activity of public employees have produced certain seriously undesirable effects. One which comes quickly to mind is the development of evasion and subterfuge on the part of public employees who, despite the restraints, remain partisan in their interests and preferences. Let each one of us recall his own illustrations. There are surely many of them.

A second, even less attractive result in my judgment has been the de-humanization of public employees who take the restraints seriously. A human being, whatever his job, is a rational, volitional being. Being human, he should not serve all masters, Republican or Democrat, Socialist or Communist,

statesmen or nincompoops with equal loyalty. To the degree that he strains himself to do this, he becomes less than a human being, and approaches the essence of a robot.

What is the answer to this extremely significant question? No one answer can be given for all jurisdictions at all times. But it seems to me that we are moving very properly in the direction of less and less restraint, with more and more political freedom for public employees. Even today there are some jurisdictions at the state and local levels, if not the national, in which all restrictions can now be removed, and in which the undesirable effects of restraint can disappear without in any way impairing the desirable protection for both employees and the whole public service.

There is no question that a start should be made. The only question is *where*.

the

bookshelf

Personnel Administration—Evaluation and Executive Control. By James H. Taylor. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York. 326 pp. \$7.00.

Reviewed by

CHARLES H. BENTLEY

Director of Personnel, American National Bank and Trust Company of Chicago

As one starts to read this book, the first reaction is that it is a threat to all personnel people and should be suppressed. Mr. Taylor addresses his book, nominally at least, to the personnel man's boss and tells him how to evaluate the kind of job his personnel man is doing. But as one gets further into the book, it is evident that here are ideas that the personnel man himself will find fully as valuable as will the manager. On a thorough reading this reviewer decided that, rather than organize a book-burning expedition, he would recommend it as one of the most valuable, helpful, down-to-earth books that has appeared in the personnel field.

Mr. Taylor, who is vice president of Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., and professor of industrial relations of the school of business administration at the University of Michigan, is not one to dwell in generalities. Neither does he try to cover the entire field of personnel administration, which usually results in doing justice to none of the fields. His selection of subjects to be covered seems to hit squarely those problems which personnel people consider most important to the successful operation of their companies. His general areas are management succession, compensation of non-exempt, supervisory and executive personnel, personnel plans and policies, manager-employee and company-union relationships, and personnel philosophy. Most personnel people will agree that these are the problem areas on which we need concrete, practical advice.

Mr. Taylor has an enviable ability to cut through the hokus-pokus of those who have

cluttered up the personnel field with scientific techniques. In urging us to keep the job-evaluation plan simple, for example, he says:

Describing the jobs can be a very simple operation, or a very tedious and time consuming task. Early in the history of job evaluation, trained job analysts were employed to write minute detailed job descriptions that rivaled those prepared by time and motion analysts. This is another case where too fine an instrument was applied to a situation that doesn't lend itself to precise measurements. Experience shows that a committee of men who know the job in question well will come out with about the same answer, in far less time, as that derived from a detailed study by a specialist. This committee might well consist of the immediate supervisor of the job in question, his boss, an industrial engineer, and the personnel man. By free discussion they can isolate the essentials of the job accurately enough to measure it in terms of the factors selected.

Many personnel people know that they are far too busy to allow any time for thinking about the things they are doing. This attitude obviously does not fit in with Mr. Taylor's scheme of things. In commenting on the compensation policies of supervisory personnel, he says:

Probably the most important thing about compensation is to think about it, and when you've finished thinking, to get your thoughts down on paper. It's so important to pay properly that you need good bench marks, and this is particularly true when the responsibility of salary administration has been delegated to several people. . . . Don't let all the fuss of the last decade over attracting and retaining competent managerial personnel distract you from the main purpose of compensation—which is to get a man to produce. The basic reason for compensation is to get a greater dollar return from your business. If your compensation system does not give you more in the way of better supervision, better products,

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

more products, better human relations, and so on, then you are wasting some money, and maybe more than you think.

The final chapter in this book should be required reading for every person in the personnel field. To the question "What is a personnel man?" Mr. Taylor says there is no clear-cut answer. There is no generalized agreement whether personnel should be line or staff; there is no certainty as to where the personnel function should rank organization-wise; there is a serious question in the minds of many whether the personnel man should be an advocate of the employees or a representative of management; there is no community of opinion as to what his work should encompass. The personnel man himself has made his job more difficult.

Item: He has failed to recognize his need for special training. Too often the personnel man has acted like a broker rather than like a well-rounded professional. He employs a lawyer to read his laws and regulations, or an actuary to make his pension studies—and acts as a transmitter of their information. The competent personnel man knows these specialized fields well enough to suggest a course of action first, and then to check its propriety with a specialist. When, for instance, a lawyer is permitted to establish policy, the personnel man is admitting his failure to recognize his need for special training.

Item: He has failed to develop himself. Management understandably questions a personnel man's competence when he fails to practice what he preaches. For instance, many personnel people are keen students of management development, and have engineered successful programs within their companies, but level off in broadening themselves, and have not developed good men under them.

Item: He quite often over-strives for status. The personnel function should be kept at the operating level. The personnel man who is imbued with the philosophy of personnel management conducted at the operating level may never get that vice-presidential title and its prerogatives, but he'll be able to live with his conscience and do his job.

Management has also thrown up some road blocks in the path of the personnel man. For example, the line-staff relationship is not defined. Neither is the personnel job itself made clear cut. The personnel man is frequently closed out of top management's

daily thinking; he is expected to operate with inadequate assistance, and finally, because so much personnel work is intangible, we have assumed that there can be no measurements. Personnel men, like other humans, must be held to account for their successes and their failures. To do so, objectives for their work must be established, and when they meet them they should be given a score.

What kind of man makes the most effective personnel man? First, according to Mr. Taylor, he should be of above-average intelligence. He should be employee centered. He should be motivated to serve. He must be an "operator"—and an adaptable one. He must be energetic. He must have good sensitivity and good empathy. He must be thick-skinned. He must be capable of growth.

All of this may make it seem that the author is feeling too sorry for the average personnel man. This may be true, but then this is a thoughtful, practical book. If the evaluation of the personnel man appears to be a sad presentation, it is the situation that makes it so, not the attitude of the author.

The Motivation to Work. By Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara B. Snyderman. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, 1959. 157 pp.

Reviewed by

GARLIE A. FOREHAND

Research Associate,

Center for Programs in Government Administration, University of Chicago

"A major failing of most previous work in job attitudes," conclude the authors, "has been its fragmentary nature" (p. 11). In the study reported in the present volume, the authors attempted, with a great deal of success, to achieve a more integrated conceptualization of job attitudes, the factors giving rise to them, and their effects. The resulting findings are not only of theoretical interest, but of great potential value to administrators who must make decisions about employee attitudes.

The "factors-attitudes-effects complex" was studied by means of content analysis of interviews with about 200 engineers, accountants, and administrators. The method used to define job attitudes is similar to the critical-incident technique of studying job performance. The respondents were asked

to talk about critical periods in their job histories—long-range periods during which their morale was consistently high or low, or short-range periods characterized by exceptionally good or exceptionally bad feelings about their jobs. Through probing questions, information was gained about the objective situations giving rise to the reported feelings ("first order factors"), the respondents' perceptions and interpretations of the objective situations ("second order factors") and the effects of the reported feelings on performance, turnover, mental health, interpersonal relations and attitudes.

Some of the provocative findings of the study are:

1. That different sets of factors give rise to high and low job attitudes, rather than opposite characteristics of a single set of factors. For example, while dissatisfaction with company policy and administration was the most often cited factor in low attitudes, approval of company policy and administration was rarely cited as a factor in high attitudes.
2. That the "satisfier" factors—those promoting high morale—center about characteristics of the job itself (achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility), while the "dissatisfiers" are more frequently characteristics of the context of the job (company policy, interpersonal relations, technical supervision).
3. That positive feelings growing out of a short-term sequence of events are much more likely to be lasting than negative feelings.
4. That according to interviewees' reports, high morale is much more likely to have an effect upon performance, turnover, mental health, etc., than is low morale.

It is unfortunate that more discussion is not given to the relationship between factors and effects. The authors report that with few exceptions "there was essentially no difference in proportions of effects produced by various factors. It is a basic finding of the study that factors are not equally likely to produce a high or low attitude—but if an attitude is produced by any factor it is just as likely to produce an effect as an attitude caused by any other factor." The reviewer interprets this to mean that one high-morale-producing factor has about the same effect on, say, performance or turn-

over as any other. The data, however, would have bearing on a different question: whether two different effects, say turnover and performance, are influenced by the same configuration of factors. A discussion of this question would be interesting in view of the current hypothesis that the set of motivations leading to achievement are different from the motivations which lead to remaining with the organization.¹

The organization of the book is worthy of emulation by authors of book-length research reports. Nearly a third of the pages are devoted to a detailed but readable and non-technical presentation of the research procedure. This enhances the usefulness of the book by enabling the reader both to assess for himself the validity of the conclusions formed by the authors and also to evaluate the relevance of the findings to his own specific problems. For example, the detailed descriptions of the sample of interviewees, and of the companies for which they work, will help the supervisor or personnel officer to assess the comparability of the data to personnel situations in his own orbit.

This kind of presentation is particularly valuable in describing a study based upon content analysis of interviews. Inevitably the authors' interview schedule and coding system will not be fully satisfactory to all readers, but they can at least be fully understood, thanks to the detailed presentation in text and appendices.

The presentation is marred by a few omissions of needed details. The most exasperating is the omission, after the first few tables, of the numbers of cases upon which generalizations are based. Since relationships are presented in terms of percentages of cases in which two variables appeared concurrently, this makes it difficult to judge the relative importance of the different results. At least a few general comparisons of stories initiated by the interviewees with those elicited by the interviewers would also seem to be in order.

The concluding section discusses suggestions for replicating and broadening the research, and implications of the findings for the management of organizations. The latter discussion touches on the issues of "motivation versus hygiene," "the structure of jobs," "should jobs be made more interest-

¹J. G. March and H. Simon, with the collaboration of H. Guetzkow, *Organizations* (New York: Wiley, 1959), p. 48.

ing," "supervision," and others. The provocative insights of this section make the entire work worthy of the careful attention of administrators.

Administrative Vitality: The Conflict With Bureaucracy. By Marshall E. Dimock. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1959. xiii, 298 pp.

Reviewed by

LEE S. GREENE

University of Tennessee

Bureaucracies and bigness seem always to have been suspect. In one of his novels, Balzac refers to the civil service as a place where a man of talent creates a general scare. Dimock addresses himself to this problem of bureaucracy in these words: "Bureaucracy is inherent in large-scale organization; enterprise is harder to maintain than it used to be: what can be done about it?" (p. x).

The author is aware that he sets himself a large task, for he explores what is meant by vitality in institutions and administration, what causes growth and decay of institutions, and what basic aspects of bureaucracy and enterprise can be combined to form continuing vital administration. The author says: "Although all this is a large order, it is worth a try" (p. xi). I think the book well justifies the try. Certainly the volume makes interesting reading; even though, generally speaking, only tentative suggestions or conclusions are offered, these are provocative. It is quite possible to pick minor flaws in the argument or to raise doubts about the existence of evidence to support some of the assertions or suggestions, but the main point is that Dimock is dealing with a subject of the greatest importance, no matter how elusive the evidence may be.

The author's evidence has been collected over a great many years starting in the 1930's. He has studied not only the governmental bureaucracies, but the equally formidable ones which operate the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, General Motors, Pennsylvania Railroad, Sears, Roebuck, and Company, and, in Great Britain, Marks and Spencer. To this he has added public corporations in Britain and the United States, and state enterprises in Turkey and other underdeveloped countries.

The author attempts in his final chapter to suggest what is needed in order to keep an economy vital. The sweeping generalizations there encountered will offend some. Nor can a generalization provide a very specific answer to individual problem situations. Nevertheless, the chapter, like those which precede it, is filled with fruitful ideas and summations, not least significant of which is its plea for individualism.

The Executive Overseas. By John Fayerweather. Syracuse University Press, Syracuse 10, N. Y., 1959. 195 pp. \$4.00.

Reviewed by

ROBERT I. BIREN

*Director, Office of Management Planning,
International Cooperation Administration*

This book is, at the same time, something less and something more than the reader is led to expect from the title and the description on the dust jacket. The coverage is less than complete since it deals entirely with executives of the private business world, and almost exclusively with operations in Mexico. Within these limitations, however, it contains much of value on administrative behavior and provides insights which, at least in Mexico, should be of considerable immediate help to business operations.

Government officials, U.S. or foreign, seeking guidance on how to work successfully in another country receive almost no attention. There is one somewhat unfortunate reference to the unsuitability as a U.S. representative of the "zealous foreign aid technician," and several statements on the need for getting along with local government officials. This is a book for and about officials of private industry.

This reviewer is somewhat concerned by the fact that the author has confined his setting largely to Mexico. A few quotations on India and Germany and some citations of studies concerning other countries do not give an air of universality to the treatment but, instead, point up the special character of the book. There is, of course, no objection to a specialized study of this kind, but it does seem that more is claimed for the book than it can deliver.

It is true that general propositions should be valid most places, and the broader the principles or admonitions put forward, the

wider their apparent applicability. Unfortunately, greater generality is likely to mean lesser usefulness. Sweeping propositions tend to lack novelty or to require considerable hedging. An example of the first is:

Again, therefore, we are faced with a problem which can be answered only case by case on the basis of the individual feelings of each executive. In the short run, a man will usually be more comfortable if he can live by his instinctive attitudes. In the long run, some change in these attitudes may lead to greater satisfaction. While he is changing, however, he will probably go through a period of considerable distress.

Examples of limitations on general statements are numerous, but the following may stand for all of them.

... In the United States culture great importance is attached to a variety of actions which are considered essential to the good of society. They include "being a good sport," "giving the other fellow a break," and "sticking to the rules of the game." Thus, while the United States culture gives great encouragement to a man in advancing himself, he feels constantly constrained in his efforts to do so by this diffuse code which limits his freedom of action, a code which is enforced by powerful pressures of social approval and disapproval. . . .

... No comparable constraints are necessary in an individualistic type of culture. In fact, "to give the other fellow a break" when you know he will simply use it to push you aside is pure folly. We find in a society like Mexico's many kindly people who are helpful to others, but the culture does not press a man to put such actions ahead of his personal interest.

... These two aspects of systems of values illustrate the types of differences which United States executives may encounter abroad. They have been portrayed quite simply and neatly for the sake of clarity. In reality, they are seldom encountered in such simple form. Probably the reader will have noted to himself United States executives whose systems of values ran counter in some ways to what has been described as the United States cultural pattern. Likewise, in this research Mexicans were observed who, to varying degrees, conformed to this dominant United States pattern. And to make the situation even more confusing, many executives demonstrate a notable ambivalence in their system of values, sometimes showing one attitude and sometimes another.

On the plus side, the author makes it

quite clear that lasting success in intercultural relations depends upon a conscientious and structured effort at understanding cultural differences. Except for a few rare people who seem to absorb appropriate patterns of thinking and conduct without effort, almost all men working in a culture other than their own must be energetic as well as receptive and perceptive concerning differences in values and customs. Presumably, this need applies in the fields of art, science, and, of course, diplomacy as well as in business affairs. Since traditionally only the diplomat has been trained for such intercultural activity, the need for new methods of preparation is plain.

The book has several useful things to say about cultural adjustment. It points out that if the adjustment is superficial and slick, it is likely to be unsuccessful. Learning the language, the great current enthusiasm of both industry and government, is not enough. Making a stab at the local language as part of a sincere and continued interest in a new culture *is* meaningful. Those who seek to short-cut the efforts required for intercultural adjustment are as unlikely to succeed as those who seek an easy path to personal maturation.

What is the man like who makes good as the U.S. executive abroad? He is, as might be expected, mature and personally competent, but, compared with his counterpart working in the U.S., he has a greater interest in his employees and a greater tolerance for the unusual or even the bizarre. The local executive working for a U.S. firm in his own country must rise above the limitations of his culture and attain an appreciation of the methods and attitudes of U.S. business. Needless to say, he also needs to tolerate practices which seem to make little sense to him. There are not enough such people available to meet the demand for them, but then there are never enough good executives even for home consumption. The requirement should, with research and training, stimulate and create the supply.

Readers will evaluate for themselves the adequacy of the research which supports the study. It dealt with 22 U.S. companies and, preliminarily, involved interviews with 45 U.S. and 6 Mexican executives. "Certain" management groups were determined to be "reasonably representative" and 6 U.S. and 10 Mexican executives within these groups were observed and interviewed in-

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

tensively over a four-month period. A number of anecdotes and minor case reports are used throughout the book to give realism to the principles they illustrate.

Finally, personnel men will note with satisfaction that the problems enumerated in the study find their best pragmatic solutions in enlightened personnel management. A policy of rewarding superior performance without regard for national origin or preconceptions concerning the proper levels for non-U.S. executives, may sound a bit obvious, but it is at the heart of success everywhere.

Specifically the executive expects the company to promote his personal welfare and respect his individual dignity. . . . The question of promotion of foreign executives

is the crucial test both of the interest of the company in the individual's welfare and its respect for his dignity. No words can describe the strength of the emotions the author observed toward companies who did and did not discriminate against foreign executives in promotions. Where the foreign executive could see that the companies were really intent on giving them every opportunity to advance, they usually showed tremendous loyalty and affection for the organization. Problems of pay, pensions, and so forth command less attention but they round out the picture and in some cases appeared as a strong factor in men's feelings.

With this we can all agree, difficult as it may be for us to give vitality and meaning to such a policy.

PERSONNEL BIBLIOGRAPHY

This feature is possible through the cooperation of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. It was prepared by the staff of the Commission's Library under the direction of Mrs. Elaine Woodruff, Librarian. Selections are made on the basis of (1) general availability, (2) pertinence to the public service generally, and (3) recency of material.

Publications in this list were selected from more extensive bibliographies on training methods and on executive development, both of which are to be issued later in 1960.

Executive Development in the Public Service

GENERAL

Bennett, Willard E.

Management selection, education and training. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959. 210 pp.

Mr. Bennett believes that concentration on the surface methodology of executive development has caused fundamental rationale to be almost entirely overlooked.

In this book, he has approached the selection, education and training of managers as a totality, from climate to theory to over-all plan, including such topics as requirements of climate, devices applicable to selection, and intellectual conditioning.

Bergen, Garret L.

The career system in business. Public administration review, vol. 14, no. 3, Summer 1954, pp. 165-169.

Discusses problems of finding and developing executive talent. Relates how organization can improve effectiveness of its managers and management through analysis of its needs and through planning systematic approach which will improve performance of present members of management and develop future members of number and quality required.

Black, James M.

How to grow in management. Englewood Cliffs, N. J., Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957. 246 pp.

Outlines basic principles of successful leadership in action with emphasis on human relations factor in executive ability, decision-making, and communications. Includes two comprehensive self-evaluation tests.

Cantor, Nathaniel.

The learning process for managers. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1958. 154 pp.

Primary concern is the "manager's responsibility for developing the potential of those for whom he is responsible." First describes the function of the manager, then explores learning process through which goals of development programs may be communicated.

Dimock, Marshall E.

Executive development after ten years. Public administration review, vol. 18, no. 2, Spring 1958, pp. 91-97.

Examines present formulas and procedures in executive development in an effort to determine the reasons for deficiencies and to suggest means of overcoming them.

Edwards, Joseph D.

Executives: making them click. New York, University Books, 1956. 242 pp.

Points out that it is top management's responsibility to constantly preach and practice a policy of helping its management people to grow, and emphasizes at the same time that the growth process is an individual one. Examines in some detail the behavior pattern of the executive in action and his relationship to the whole of management. Identifies in the appendix various university courses available for executive-level personnel.

Hall, Noel F.

The making of higher executives: the modern challenges. New York, New York University, School of Commerce, Accounts, and Finance, 1958. 100 pp.

Contents: The higher executive—developing the whole man; The Henley experiment; The four stages in management development.

Josephs, Ray.

Streamlining your executive workload. Englewood Cliffs, N. J., Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958. 203 pp.

Practical suggestions for making the executive workload easier by working smarter, not harder. Contains many "for instances," and case histories which emphasize the importance of planning.

Katzell, Raymond A.

Reflections on "educating executives." Public administration review, vol. 19, no. 1, Winter 1959, pp. 1-6.

Analyzes executive educational programs discussed in Autumn 1958, Public Administration Review, in terms of objectives, content, method, educational agency, and job level of trainees. Includes evaluation of overall programs and suggestions for assuring their effectiveness.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

Lambrou, Fred H.

The breadth and depth of management training. *Personnel administration*, vol. 21, no. 4, July-August 1958, pp. 49-51.

Distinguishes between breadth and depth of training in terms of five zones of knowledge: danger, general knowledge, working knowledge, supervisory or direction, and policy formulation zones.

Mace, Myles L.

The growth and development of executives. Boston, Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1950. 200 pp.

Results of first-hand observations on policies, formal programs, informal approaches and practices of numerous industrial companies which are trying to develop men for responsible management positions.

Matteson, Robert J. M.

Management development for public administrators. New York, Institute of Public Administration, 1957. 10 pp.

Notes for a talk on a panel on "Executive Development Programs in Action," Public Personnel Association Conference, Montreal, September 30, 1957.

Urges increased research into the need for broad governmental executive development. Points out areas of management that can be improved by training.

Merrill, Harwood F., and Elizabeth Marting, Eds.

Developing executive skills; new patterns for management growth. New York, American Management Association, Inc., 1958. 431 pp.

This volume includes certain basic chapters from a previous publication, *The Development of Executive Talent*, but is essentially a new book since it adds a large amount of more recent material. Part I: Essentials of management development. Part II: A look at company experience includes case studies from selected business firms.

Planty, Earl G., and J. Thomas Freeston.

Developing management ability; 600 questions and answers. New York, Ronald Press Company, 1954. 447 pp.

Answers 600 questions, carefully compiled and classified, relating to development of management ability, methods used, types of development, organization and operation of development, and evaluation of development activities.

Randall, Raymond L., Ed.

Executive development in action: patterns and techniques. Washington, D. C., Society for Personnel Administration, 1955. 31 pp. (Pamphlet no. 9)

Based upon the proceedings of the First and Second Annual Institutes for Executive Development, 1953-1954, "this document attempts to capture in topical outline form the main trends of thought at these sessions without identifying contributors."

Rowland, Virgil K.

Improving managerial performance. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1958. 167 pp.

Brings together some management techniques that have been accepted by progressive managers and shows how actual performance of management duties can be used as a new kind of development procedure.

Contents: Part 1, A philosophy of management development; Part 2, Appraisal—review—interview; Part 3, Development techniques.

Uris, Auren.

Developing your executive skills. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955. 270 pp.

Points out that since today's executive operates within a network of personal relationships and administrative functions, the increasing skill with which an individual handles this "pattern of relationships" indicates his growth as an executive. Each chapter examines and analyzes a specific aspect of executive activity, from decision making to contact with colleagues, in an effort to demonstrate how the executive can grow and become more effective in his job.

PUBLIC SERVICE

Canada. Senior Personnel Officer's Conference.

Executive and professional development; conference summary. Ottawa, Civil Service Commission, 1957. 22 pp.

Discusses executive and professional development programs in an effort to develop better understanding of purpose and procedures in such programs in the Canadian Civil Service, and to evolve suggestions for improved programs.

Carrell, Jephtha J.

An appraisal of municipal in-service training. *Public management*, vol. 40, no. 10, October 1958, pp. 237-241.

Points out reasons for in-service management training for municipal administrators and supervisors, and tells how to get started on a training program.

Dvorin, Eugene P.

The graduate seminar for adult education—an evaluation. *Personnel administration*, vol. 21, no. 3, May-June 1958, pp. 41-44.

Cites some of the problems that have developed and implications that can be drawn from higher education for public employees. Discusses a graduate seminar in management that is being held at Los Angeles State College.

Graves, W. Brooke.

An intergovernmental attack on local training needs. *Personnel administration*, vol. 22, no. 3, May-June 1959, pp. 30-38.

Summary of findings of a survey concerning public service training of local government personnel points up uneven awareness of need, lack of central coordinating agency within most states, typical organizational pattern, uneven programs both in quantity and quality, special areas in which training is given, problem of financial support and scarcity of qualified training personnel. Also makes recommendations for the future.

Grundstein, Nathan D.

Understanding self and organization. *Public administration review*, vol. 18, no. 4, Autumn 1958, pp. 285-291.

An evaluation of content and effectiveness of executive development programs for public executives based on experience with four different programs in Detroit and in Michigan.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

Jones, Roger W.

Rethinking executive development. Washington, D. C., U. S. Civil Service Commission, 1959. 8 pp. (News release, October 5, 1959)

Address at 1959 conference of Public Personnel Association, San Francisco, October 5, 1959.

Surveys progress and trends in executive development and reviews developmental needs of career executives in federal service.

Michigan. Civil Service Commission.

Excerpts from the executive development program. Lansing, 1958. 1 v.

Contains excerpts from various talks and discussions held during the executive development program conducted by Department of Political Science of Wayne State University for the Michigan Civil Service Commission.

Nelson, Charles A.

Liberal education for public service? Public administration review, vol. 18, no. 4, Autumn 1958, pp. 278-284.

Points out what liberal arts education can contribute to executives in the public service and offers some instances where it has been utilized.

Perloff, Harvey S.

The urban administrator; education for service in metropolitan communities. College Park, Md., University of Maryland, College of Business and Public Administration, Bureau of Governmental Research, 1958. 22 pp.

Examines the challenge facing institutions and organizations concerned with educating persons for the public service in attempting to provide the special knowledge and tools needed by administrators in urban governments. Illustrates some of the special conditions of urban administration and highlights key issues in education for this area.

Pollock, Ross.

Competency to serve the public interest. Washington, D. C., U. S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Programs and Standards, 1957. 9 pp.

Examines the role of the central personnel agency in executive development.

Presented at the International Conference of the Public Personnel Association, Montreal, Canada, September 30, 1957.

Pollock, Ross.

Present tendencies in the post-entry training of higher-grade civil servants. Washington, D. C., U. S. Civil Service Commission, Career Development Program, 1956. 19 pp.

Traces history and trends in development programs for middle management and higher executive posts in the federal civil service. Also explores briefly some indications for the future.

American reply on the second topic for the Madrid Congress of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences, September 3-8, 1956.

Sherman, J. Walter.

A formal management development program that works. Public personnel review, vol. 17, no. 1, January 1956, pp. 7-12.

Explains in broad outlines the Kelly Air Force Base program for management development consisting of four phases: appraisal of each member's job performance and future potential; inventory of managerial resources; replacement planning; and development of each member of the program to meet his individual needs.

Sherwood, Frank P.

Education in management: the "second career." Good government, vol. 74, no. 2, March-April 1957, pp. 15-16.

Tells how technically trained people, moving into generalized management positions, are preparing for a "second career" by going back to school. Cites examples of administrators in local Southern California government, showing why they are taking training in public administration.

Stockford, Lee.

Outline of executive development. Pasadena, California Institute of Technology, Industrial Relations Section, 1953. 46 pp. (Bulletin no. 23)

Detailed outline of organizational factors involved in successful executive development programs and discussion of essential steps to be followed in carrying out such a project.

Sweeney, Stephen B., and Thomas J. Davy, Eds.

Education for administrative careers in government service. Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press, 1958. 366 pp.

Presents results of a research-conference program conducted during 1956-1957 to determine what is the best education and training for those who wish careers in local and state government.

Partial contents: Part 1, Education for administrative policy-making careers; Part 2, The position and role of the administrative policy-making officer.

U. S. Civil Service Commission. Program Planning Division.

How to start an executive development program; an outline. Washington, D. C., 1956. 25 pp.

Explains what executive development is and outlines a summary of action steps for setting up such programs. Also discusses in some detail specific items which should be developed to support the action program.

U. S. Civil Service Commission. Program Planning Division. Career Development Program.

Directory of college courses and programs designed to meet the needs of the federal executive. Washington, D. C., 1958. 20 pp.

Lists by civil service region university and college courses specifically directed at meeting needs of federal managers.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

Wiltse, Kermit T.

Public assistance personnel: educational requirements and training facilities. Berkeley, University of California, Bureau of Public Administration, 1959. 51 pp. (1959 Legislative problems: no. 5)

Studies the nature of the public assistance task, as well as alternatives and problems in staffing and recruiting for public assistance programs.

Wisconsin. State Department of Public Welfare. Division of Business Management. Personnel Section.

Report of training activities in the State department of public welfare. Madison, 1958. 16 pp.

Summarizes training of professional and non-professional staff, supervisory training, training for those expected to develop needed training programs, administrative, technical and crafts training, and affiliated clinical or field training.

Professionalization

The Personnel Dilemma: Profession or Not?

Frank B. Miller. *Personnel Journal*. June 1959.

"Is personnel work a profession?" "Should it be a profession?" "How can it get to be a profession?"

Writers on personnel matters continually return to the problem of professionalism. Research indicates that personnel workers were debating professional status even before the word "personnel" was adopted, and even then some people doubted the advantages of professionalism.

Louis D. Brandeis set forth the peculiar characteristics of a profession in 1912 as: (1) an occupation for which training is intellectual in character, involving knowledge and learning as distinguished from mere skill; (2) an occupation which is pursued largely for others and not merely for one's self; (3) an occupation in which the amount of financial return is not the accepted measure of success.

However, the decisive feature distinguishing professional from other activities is this: *that members occupy a peculiar position of trust toward the public and toward a special clientele.* This trust demands competent practitioners supported by a code of ethics.

Personnel people are confronted with the decisive question: "Is our occupation required by society to support, protect, and advance some very firmly held public value?"

Pious statements without follow-through will not impress outsiders.

The sacrifices of professionalism include:

1. Long careful preparation with implied high standards.
2. A set of loyalties outside the individual firm.
3. A substantial investment of time in keeping up with changes in practice.

The advantages professions afford to practitioners include:

1. Many moral decisions are spelled out in the code of ethics which supports and directs the conscience of the practitioners.
2. Job incentive comes more from within and less from the way in which superiors manipulate rewards and punishments.
3. A more stable "protective" wage-price picture for the qualified practitioner through the establishing of enforceable standards of competence.

Applying these characteristics as the criteria of established professions, we would have to answer "No" to the question: "Is personnel work a profession?"

The basic questions remaining are: "Should it be?" and, if so: "What can be done to make it one in the full sense of the word?"—NORMAN R. SHARPLESS, JR.

Pay Policies

Compensation: Wrong Roads and Questionable Directions. Stanley M. Herman. *Personnel*. September–October, 1959.

Some of the current standard "working doctrines" used in compensation administration have been unrealistic and inappropriate from their inception; and others, appropriate and functional in their day, are obsolete or rapidly becoming so. The time has come to recognize the futility of trying to measure the worth of occupations against the same yardstick. Although the use of the principles of quantitative methods of job evaluation—and especially the point methods—are valid and applicable in evaluating the general run of trade and clerical jobs, it is a serious error to assume that they are equally valid and applicable in evaluating technical and professional jobs. The prevailing insistence on the division between job and man presents one of the most for-

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

midable barriers to a real understanding of the dynamics involved in the shaping of professional and technical jobs. Some counterapproaches opening up some promising avenues which possibly may be "worth a walk" are:

1. The critical factors of each occupational series within which evaluations are to be made should be determined;
2. We should not attempt to atomize jobs into their smallest possible parts and treat each factor in isolation. Rather, we should derive factor complexes based on the natural dynamics of the jobs;
3. The way and extent to which a job functions in the context of the factor complex should be described as specifically as possible (preferably with the use of examples);
4. The essentially inseparable relationship between man and job in the evaluation of many professional and technical jobs should be recognized and provisions should be made to treat this relationship systematically.—FRED E. HENNE.

Testing

What's the Score Now With Psychological Tests? Lyle M. Spencer. *American Business*. October, 1959.

By now, nearly every corporation executive is familiar with tests used to weed out the crab grass from the Merion blue among potential employees. Psychologists who developed these tests never expected their science to be employed so ardently by businessmen.

Although some executives have developed elaborate techniques for picking job applicants in the traditional face-to-face meeting, testing has come a long way since Alfred Binet administered the first intelligence test to school children in 1905. There are today tests of mental aptitude, achievement, personality, manual dexterity, mechanical aptitude, opinions and interests in job conditions and home conditions. Schools and colleges use tests for such purposes as admission to college, ability grouping, scholarship awards, and career planning.

Increasingly articulate arguments have been launched against the alleged "blight of testomania," its rigidity, and the possibility that tests would have imprisoned the dreams of a Thomas Edison or a Henry Ford. This

is nonsense. Tests seek to measure individuality to help the executive ferret out individual potentialities.

There are two major reasons for the extensive use of tests today:

First, the need for specialized brain power has accelerated to keep pace with scientific, cultural, and technical advances made since World War II. The increase in non-production workers has forced the executive to welcome yardsticks for the measurement of employee qualities, even though the ability and personality calculator may be less than perfect.

Second, as the need for brainy employees has burgeoned, the cost of finding and training this talent has multiplied. Because of the cost in selection and training, the executive wants to minimize the element of risks—especially for top spots. Even the best tests may be misused; but in companies where tests are used properly, management and workers generally agree that the entire selection and placement program takes on a more thorough, systematic, and democratic coloration. Tests are only one of several tools in the selection process; their use may sharpen and point up decisions. They are more than just short cuts to making executive selections easy.—DOROTHY C. PIEZ.

Army Studies Cast Doubt on Validity of Personality Tests. Robert M. Smith. *Office Management*. September, 1959.

It is exceptional when large companies with experienced personnel departments are embarrassed by indiscriminate use of currently popular psychological tests designed to predict job performance based on applicants' personality traits. However, many small concerns without trained staffs view the personality test as something that has been "proved" valuable by major corporations and thus appropriate for all businesses. There are at least three major arguments against this assumption:

1. Large companies use such tests in the belief that these offer the best chance of getting a high percentage of good candidates from the hundreds of people interviewed each year. While the large corporation may have need of automatic screening procedures, this necessity does not arise in a small company.
2. Assuming psychological tests have validity, personal characteristics desirable from the standpoint of a major

corporation may be undesirable for an executive in a small company.

3. There are very serious doubts about the validity of personality tests in general.

The longest and best documented attack on personality testing was contained in *The Organization Man* by William H. Whyte, Jr. A nine-year study conducted by the Conservation of Human Resources Project at Columbia University now provides Whyte with corroborating evidence. The study analyzed two million men rejected for military service in World War II because of mental or emotional defects and three-quarter million men who proved incapable of adapting to a non-combat military environment. In relation to this latter group, the study report entitled "The Ineffective Soldier" concludes: "There is no way of finding out what a man can really do except by the slow and costly process of trying him out."

While there are major distinctions between drafting men for military service in a war-time emergency and selecting from a group of applicants the best qualified men for responsible company positions, this report has obvious implications for management. Although intelligence tests measure capabilities in a few broad areas and aptitude tests check measurable quantities and abilities, personality tests attempt to measure intangible facets of a man's personality. Perhaps the most serious flaw from the viewpoint of the small concern is that personality testing attempts to match men against arbitrary and rigid job specifications. While jobs at the basic worker level may be fixed forever in dimension, a company may be better advised to staff executive positions with men who can give their jobs new dimensions.—NORMAN R. SHARPLESS, JR.

Three Faces of Intellect. J. P. Guilford. *American Psychologist*. August, 1959.

Using the method of factor analysis, the human intellect was analyzed into various basic factors. These factors were classified by the operations performed, by their contents, and by the product—the combination of content and operation.

The first kind of classification produced five groups of intellectual abilities: cognition, memory, convergent-thinking, divergent-thinking, and evaluation. In convergent-thinking, various types of information converge into a conventional or best answer. In divergent-thinking, the basis for

creativity, we think in different directions and search for variety. When classified according to the kind of content involved, there were figural (concrete objects perceived through our sensory modalities), symbolic (letters and digits), semantic (meanings and ideas), and behavioral contents. As an operation was combined with a type of content, six kinds of products emerged: units, classes, relations, systems, transformations (changes and modifications in organizations and meanings), and implications.

Using these three methods of classification as the three dimensions of a cube, a solid theoretical model is constructed. This is the "Structure of Intellect." There are 120 cells in this model and each cell represents a certain intellectual ability that is describable in terms of operation, content, and product.

At present, various tests measure some of the abilities in these cells; for example, a typical judgment test measures semantic ability (content) in the evaluation (operation) of transformations (product). However, a majority of the factors have not yet been explored.

The implications of this finding are many: tests of intelligence ought to be lengthened and a multiple-score approach is indicated. In the area of vocational testing, the assessment of ability and interest will be more precise. The most important implication, however, concerns education. Since the objective of education is to develop the intellect of individuals, each factor now provides its own specific goal. By proper arrangement of curriculum, we may be able to develop individuals with the desirable intellectual ability. The present lack of creative, inventive persons may be remedied by concentrating on the improvement of the divergent-thinking and transformation categories of the intellect.—ALICE HUANG.

Training

Executive Training . . . Outside or Inside? Schuyler Hoslett. *American Business*. June, 1959.

While the superior who can contribute to staff development by personal example, standards, and coaching is a most persuasive stimulant to executive growth, any sizeable organization must have a systematic management-development plan. Determining whether courses involved in the development plan should be "inside" (conducted by the company itself), "outside" (conducted by

universities, professional associations, et al.), or a combination of both, requires good analysis of all factors.

Among the factors that bear on the "inside vs. outside" decision are: the relative value of a larger number of persons from several levels of management being accommodated by the "inside" course over that of a smaller number from one or a few levels benefiting by the more costly "outside" course; the purpose and content of the course—if covering basic skills related to the company's objectives, the "inside" course may be better, and, alternately, if the need is specialized—involving skills required by only a few—the "outside" course would be indicated; if, however, orientation and analysis are needed in depth, the "outside" organization could be the answer; decisions concerning the level or levels of management, e.g., for the lower to the middle management levels, most companies can provide more productive experiences by an "inside" course but, for upper level courses, including policy making and administration functions, "outside" courses, designed for the subject-matter area, would probably be better.

Another consideration is that top management, concerned with prestige, may respond more readily to the "outside" institution. Of great importance, too, is the relative ability of "inside vs. outside" personnel to set up and administer a soundly based, stimulating course likely to achieve its objective. "Inside" training, when mediocre, is worse than no training at all. Predetermining the training needs of participants accurately is most essential so that the correct "outside" course may be purchased. This may be accomplished by the individuals involved appraising their own performance and selecting areas for their improvement—subject to review by each employee's immediate superior and his associates who have likewise assessed the trainee. Knowledge of the content, scope, level, and quality of "outside" courses can be obtained from management consultants who have made evaluations of development programs and by the company itself through the guided evaluation of its personnel who have attended the courses.

Objective measurement of course results is difficult, but by each participant setting attainable, timed objectives for improvement, by group stimulation through publicizing results (company newsletter, etc.) and planning for continued on-the-job follow-up, the entity will experience positive gains

from the course. In the final analysis, any development program must be assessed in terms of improvement in performance by managers in their present jobs and in the work of the organization as a whole. (A chart provides detailed explanation of how the author's firm evaluates its courses in management development.)—R. V. METCALFE.

Methods of Determining Training Needs.

B. B. Jackson and A. C. Mackinney. *Personnel*. September–October, 1959.

One of the first and most essential steps in the development of a successful training program is the establishment of detailed and accurate training needs. This has become almost a platitude, but surprisingly little effort has been made to develop actual workable methods of analyzing training needs.

An essential first step toward clarifying the training-needs-analysis problem is to classify the methods presently being used. Broadly speaking, all methods of determining training needs can be grouped under three main heads: emotional, rational, and empirical.

Emotional methods of analysis are common—for example, "keeping up with the Joneses," which involves establishing training programs because other organizations are using them; "the hard sell," which involves establishing training because a convincing promoter has been successful; "the way we do things around here," in which training is established or continued merely because it has been done before; and the "ego involvement," in which training is established because it boosts the importance of some executive who has originated it.

The rational methods, though somewhat similar to empirical methods, do not utilize as extensively the collection of data as does the empirical procedure. The "opinion poll" utilizes direct informal discussions with employees or supervisors and is most workable as a preliminary method. The "interview" is closely related to the opinion poll but can be used in the area of employee dissatisfaction to develop the need for training. The "group discussion" involves a series of interviews and conferences to identify training needs.

Empirical methods entail a systematic attempt to collect data on which judgments of training needs can be based. A review of "performance evaluation" can be used in tabulation form and can reveal such things

as an unbalanced workforce, anticipated vacancies for which there are no qualified replacements, lack of promotable employees, and other such man and organizational needs. "Group criteria" consists of dividing workers into "good workers" or "poor workers"; systematically surveying the two groups as to their differences; and then using this as a basis to determine training needs. "Job analysis" is useful in determining training needs on a job basis, rather than on an individual employee basis. Such analysis must be specific and detailed with a definite aim of uncovering training needs. The "questionnaire" of the attitude survey type is useful if a predetermined criteria of acceptable or desirable attitudes is established. "Psychological tests" have proven useful in uncovering training needs, particularly if followed up with small-group discussions. Though complex and time consuming, "forced-choice ratings" offer an approach which provides uncommon objectivity in training-needs analysis. Typical factors relating to the best and poorest supervisors are used, and managers rate the supervisors on a forced-choice scale. From this are developed the areas in which training is needed.

It is quite possible and often desirable to use a combination of two or more of these empirical methods.

There is a crying need in determining training needs for some sound experimentation designed to evaluate the effectiveness of these various methods in general, as well as their effectiveness in particular situations. It goes without saying that this is a big order.

Tentatively, then, we must conclude that the emotional methods are to be avoided at all costs, that rational methods are fine for preliminary analysis, and that empirical methods seem to be the most dependable, although not enough research has been performed for us to judge which one is best. (The article contains an excellent selected bibliography.)—GENE HUNTLEY.

Career Executives

Why Have Career Executives in Government? Roger W. Jones. *Personnel Administration*. July–August, 1959.

Theodore Roosevelt in 1895, shortly before he resigned from the U. S. Civil Service Commission, remarked that few young men came into the federal service with any idea of making a career and that there was little

assurance of their rising steadily through merit.

A good many thousand young men and women entered the career service of the United States in 1959. Many of them have an idea of staying for more than a few years, many have assurance of rising steadily through merit, and many will become executives.

What has happened between 1895 and 1959 to create acceptance of a career executive? His parallel existed in American industry before 1900. Success of the career executive in business attracted attention as a management device in government in World Wars I and II. By the end of World War II, the federal government had to conduct many activities found in private industry. New statutes and reorganization opened the way for civil servants to rise to executive positions. Experience demonstrated that continuity provided by career executives increased efficiency, promoted economy, and expanded knowledge to do many jobs. These were practical reasons to foster the new kind of executive.

Presidents who presided over the great expansions of the federal government in our time had to develop new tools to help them discharge their responsibilities more effectively. Special staff skills were developed in a number of subjects, such as budget, personnel, management control, training, records, and accounting. Greater emphasis was placed on the career executive as these refinements were made. As the government extended into the lives of every American, effective leadership on every level of government was expected—from the local office all the way to Washington. It was in this need and expectation that the career executive found his best reason for being.

How is the career executive controlled? He is constantly challenged to give his best by the Congress, used to dealing with him as an expert; by the public, used to dealing with him as manager of its business; and by his political superiors, used to testing his judgments.—LEROY J. BRENNEMAN.

Employee Relations

Staff Relations in the Public Service. S. J. Frankel. *Canadian Public Administration*. June, 1959.

The central theoretical problem with respect to employee relations in the civil service is the concept of the state as a sovereign employer. How can the state, which is

ough sovereign, be bound to its employees by collective agreements? In a democracy the idea of sovereignty and constitutionalism cannot always be reconciled, but the concepts are so vague that practical arrangements are usually possible. In fact, all manners of such practical arrangements can be found.

"Public interest" and "public good" are two other concepts difficult of exact definition. For this reason the use of these notions to attempt a limitation of employee relations presents considerable difficulty.

There is no intention here of denying the right of civil servants to organize. They have this right, and they have organized. However, their organizations do not have the same status as unions. Although many are specifically excluded from the provisions of the Industrial Relations and Disputes Investigation Act, 1948, they have retained their right to affiliate with the general labour movement.

The state cannot be a party to a collective agreement in the normal sense of the word. However, the state can take part in a consultative and, to a certain degree, negotiative process in which representatives of the employees and management will participate in the formulation of agreements which will be informally recognized by their principals. Thus, the process of consultation comes very close to being collective negotiation.

Whereas in private labour relations there is usually the right to resort to strike action, it is axiomatic that a strike against the sovereign is intolerable and arbitration theoretically inapplicable. Despite its sinister implications, the strike problem does not figure prominently in civil service staff relations.

The conclusion to be reached here is that the settlement of employee relations in the public service must be based on practical considerations rather than on theoretical concepts of sovereignty. (Article contains footnotes and bibliography.)—ROGER E. BÉLANGER.

Performance Appraisal

A New Concept of Performance Appraisal.
Kenneth E. Richards. *Journal of Business*.
July, 1959.

United Air Lines uses its performance appraisal to assist an employee in maintaining satisfactory performance on his *present* job. This concept differs from the traditional use of appraisals for administering salaries or promoting employees. United reached this

conclusion after a three-year study of the various aspects of performance appraisals, particularly the grades obtained with the graphic-scale method.

Appraisals are very often disappointing to management because the grades are biased and differences between supervisors and employees are widened. These rating difficulties are basically the result of human limitations, and attempts to overcome them with a form are likely to end in frustration.

In measuring the attitudes of supervisors toward appraisals, United found that, unless supervisors have an understanding and awareness of the deeper implications of appraisals, they cannot be fully effective in using such a program. Supervisors at United are given some insight into why people behave like people because the Personnel Evaluation Program is based on the rationale of human behavior. Only by understanding the four points about human behavior—the self-concept, defense mechanisms, motivation, and the factors involved in change—will performance appraisal programs be successfully used by supervisors.

At United the supervisor prepares a narrative report on the overall performance of an employee and discusses it with the employee in an understanding atmosphere. The employee has the opportunity to express his thoughts and opinions; the supervisor steers clear of any attempts to force change in the employee but leaves this responsibility up to the employee on a voluntary basis. United's program of training tries to develop supervisors to become sensitive to change. In this way they learn when a direct suggestion will be acted upon and when it will be more profitable to listen and let the individual discover the need for change himself.

This new concept has been in effect for two years and its general acceptance thus far is excellent, although there is still much more to be done in developing complete understanding and skill in using the program. (Article contains tables and exhibits showing survey items and summaries and reviews of supervisory attitudes toward performance appraisals.)—FRANK B. KRUPARZ.

Suggestion Systems

It Pays to Promote the Suggestion System.
Harry O. Carr. *Personnel Administration*.
July-August, 1959.

Is quality sacrificed when quantity is pushed in suggestion programs? The United

States Air Force, which, since 1940, has evidenced positive interest in getting employees to share their ideas with management, reports on this subject, and organizations installing or assessing suggestion systems are urged to listen. Two recent Air Force studies disclosed significant findings.

One, Air Force's "73 Percent Untapped Potential," showed positive correlation between knowledge of program and participation therein and between supervisory encouragement and participation. In addition, it showed that: lengthy processing deters participation; a significant proportion of employees question evaluator competence and fairness; problem specificity increases participation interest; and primary participation motivation is not monetary.

The second, an objective study of private industry suggestion programs, resulted in Air Force adoption of two techniques—requiring frequent, regular reports of program progress and use of competition to create and maintain program interest. Air Force added another technique—"The Goal"—a 20 percent Air Force-wide participation rate for 1956. Installations thus competed with "par" as well as with each other. Both from subjective and objective study, "it appeared sound to promote participation."

Inexplicable and uncanny, and despite many variables such as size and character of installation and age of suggestion program, is the conclusion that about one out of four ideas is good and usable. Admitting that a true and completely adequate definition of suggestion program quality is unobtainable, indices, such as number of adopted suggestions, dollars saved, and various intangible benefits, are mentioned. Unmeasurables, such as stimulation of employee creativity, strengthening of the management-employee team concept, and management values resulting from employee critique, also affect overall program quality.

Because only 51 percent of employees positively answered that suggestion evaluators were fair, and only 39 percent were convinced that evaluators recognized the quality of suggestions submitted, assessment of program quality in terms of adoption rate is questionable. Assessment in terms of total suggestion program experience is more rewarding. Assuming that 25 percent adoption is "good" quality, and assuming that every suggestion has been given fair, competent evaluation, the Air Force program is compared with that of IBM, the private industry program perennially cited as ex-

emplary; private industry, generally; and the total federal government program.

Comparisons are made and the following significant conclusions advanced: Air Force has a higher adoption rate than the exemplary IBM; and Air Force leads all federal agencies in dollars saved, suggestions submitted, and average awards. Finally cited are the conclusions that "there is nothing seriously wrong with a program that produces 1¼ million dollars in savings for every 1% participation" and that still valid is the old cliché, "the more you get, the more good ones you can get." Interesting as well as puzzling is the finding that planned emphasis on quality results in a decided decrease in participation. (Article contains charts showing comparisons, by years, of Air Force suggestion programs and of suggestion programs of industry, Air Force, and federal government.)—HELEN THOMPSON.

Organizational Dynamics

The Individual and Organization: An Empirical Test. Chris Argyris. *Administrative Science Quarterly*. September, 1959.

Increasing emphasis is being placed by behavioral scientists on developing a valid systematic theory of human behavior in organizations to go beyond the scope of traditional organizational theory based on such principles as task specialization, chain of command, unity of direction, and span of control. Such a theory should have as its objectives the understanding of any organization having a formal structure (i.e., schools, churches, labor unions, governmental agencies, and industrial organizations).

One problem in the development of such a theory relates to the understanding of the mechanisms by which the individual actualizes himself through the organization and, simultaneously, the organization actualizes itself through the individual.

During the past several years, Chris Argyris has been focusing on the problems of the simultaneous expression of these two multi-level, coexisting unities, with the assumption that neither the individual nor the organization can be understood as a discrete and independent variable. Thus, the mental health of the individual (a central interest in this research) cannot be understood independently of the effectiveness of the organization. The unit of study is not the individual or the organization; it is the individual-organization.

The test c
frame
of the
inferre
define
ization
count
hypothes
ers are
the lat
tions to
date th

In a
who an
press
signifi
press l
the pe
are ite
high-sk
work a
ductivi
jobs as
of prod
differen

The
employees
an info
and sa
antee c
psychol
also inf
toward
increas
foremen
the em
back to
adaptat
zation.
obtain
manage
adequat
senteis
grievanc
tables c
SON.

Private
Gray.

The p
activities
have be
by the
who is
officially
article.

The objective of this study is to begin to test certain aspects of the organizational framework outlined in the June, 1957, issue of the *Quarterly*. Several a priori hypotheses, inferred from an organizational theory, are defined and "tested" in an industrial organization of 300 employees and a detailed account of the results is given. Some of these hypotheses are tentatively confirmed—others are not. An analysis is made to discover the latter with the result that the "exceptions to the rule" can be shown to help validate the theoretical framework.

In accordance with the theory, employees who are provided greater opportunity to express more mature predispositions differ significantly from employees required to express behavior closer to the infant end of the personality model, and the differences are itemized. For example, employees in high-skilled jobs aspire for high-quality work as well as an acceptable rate of productivity, whereas employees in low-skilled jobs aspire primarily to an acceptable rate of productivity. Other significant inter-group differences are listed.

The research also shows that the employees modify the organization by creating an informal employee culture which coerces and sanctions behavior that helps to guarantee employee actualization. Through the psychological work contract the employees also influence foremen's leadership behavior toward being more passive. Although this increases management's pressure on the foremen, it acts to prevent disequilibrium in the employee's world. This in turn feeds back to maintain the present psychological adaptations of the employee to the organization. It also permits the organization to obtain expression of what it (through the management) desires. Thus, the plant has adequate production, high loyalty, low absenteeism, low turnover, and a low rate of grievances. (The article contains charts and tables of research results.)—RUTH L. OLSON.

Legal Aspects

Private Wrongs of Public Servants. R. J. Gray. *California Law Review*. May, 1959.

The problems of tort liability arising from activities of persons who serve the state have been far from successfully answered by the common law. Endeavoring to show who is liable for what, within the area of officially dealt harms, is the purpose of this article. A survey of positions with respect

to tort liability of the head of state, the judge, the legislator, and, in particular, the administrator in both English and American jurisdictions, was the approach.

Essentially what is needed is an entirely new approach on how to distribute the losses to individuals caused by the state. However, for the foreseeable future, even in those jurisdictions having governmental tort liability statutes, the Anglo-American system of recovery seems to be centered on the individual public officer involved and whether his act constituted an actionable tort. By the various public officers, the head of state is necessarily completely immune from being questioned in court during his term of office for acts done both in his official role and in his personal life. Judges, by definition not liable for honest error, are, due to ancient explanations, immune civilly for corrupt or malicious official acts. Legislators for historical reasons have immunity in what they say as legislators, and for valid, theoretic reasons cannot be questioned for laws they make. On the other hand, executive and administrative officials are generally liable personally for tortious conduct in the course of their duties.

Honesty of motive, in almost all English and American jurisdictions, is the minimum requirement of official acts. There is a body of decisions in the federal courts of the United States which holds that administrative officials, no matter what their motives, cannot be held for certain torts in which motive is a key element. This is, however, a minority viewpoint, resting on extremely fragile foundation, and apparently, with one notable exception (*Spalding v. Vilas*, 161 U. S. 483 (1896)) unable to gain any consistent adherents in state ranks or elsewhere.—GRACE M. PIERSON.

Abstracters for 1960

The following members of the Public Personnel Association have accepted the editor's invitation to serve as abstracters of articles for the "Personnel Literature" section of *Public Personnel Review* during 1960:

Roger E. Bélanger, Personnel Officer, The St. Lawrence Seaway Authority, Montreal, Canada

Leroy J. Brenneman, Personnel Director, Phoenix, Arizona, Civil Service Board.

James R. Gray, Personnel Administrator, Rhode Island State Division of Personnel.

Fred Henne, Personnel Officer, Arkansas State Department of Welfare.

Alice Huang, Junior Examination Technician, Public Personnel Association, Chicago, Illinois.

Gene Huntley, Director, Division of Personnel and Public Relations, Oregon State Highway Department.

Frank B. Krupiarz, Chief, Personnel Section, Michigan State Department of Health.

Robert V. Metcalfe, Ontario Department of Transport, Toronto, Canada

Ruth L. Olson, Bureau Personnel Officer, Bureau of Aeronautics, Department of the Navy.

Grace M. Pierson, Associate Personnel Examiner, California State Personnel Board.

Dorothy C. Piez, Recruitment Officer, Denver, Colorado, Career Service Authority.

Norman Sharpless, Assistant City Personnel Director, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, City Service Commission.

Helen Thompson, Assistant Personnel Director, City of Atlanta, Georgia.

Correction . . . Correction . . . Correction!

In the July, 1959 issue of *Public Personnel Review* (page 199), an item appeared quoting an excerpt from a speech in which the speaker discussed the feasibility of a "step retirement plan" for federal employees. The remarks were erroneously attributed to Mr. Amos N. Latham, Jr. of the U. S. Internal Revenue Service.

The actual author of the quoted remarks was Mr. James C. O'Brien, Director of Personnel, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Our apologies both to Mr. Latham and to Mr. O'Brien!

GRIFFENHAGEN-KROEGER, INC.

The merger of two long-established firms offers
60 years of combined experience

Personnel policy and methods • Job classification
Compensation plans • Training • Evaluation • Executive
Selection • Testing • Group insurance

64 Pine Street
San Francisco, Cal.

Other Offices: Los Angeles, Chicago,
New York, Philadelphia, Washington, D. C.

- Administrative Surveys
- Organization Analysis
- Systems and Procedures
- Salary and Classification
- Manpower and Staffing
- Office Mechanization
- Performance Budgeting
- Records Administration

BARRINGTON ASSOCIATES, INC.

230 Park Avenue—New York 17

Member, Association of Consulting Management Engineers

Brochure on Request

J. L. JACOBS & COMPANY

*Counselors in Personnel Administration
Since 1915*

POSITION CLASSIFICATION—SALARY PLANS

RECRUITING AND EXAMINATION
STANDARDS

EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE RATINGS

PERSONNEL RECORDS SIMPLIFICATION

RULES AND REGULATIONS

PERSONNEL MANUALS

53 West Jackson Blvd. Chicago 4, Ill.

LEE ASSOCIATES INC.

Public Administration Consultants

An experienced staff of public personnel specialists available for surveys and installations.

JOHNSTON BLDG., CHARLOTTE

CANDLER BLDG., ATLANTA

JAMES O. YARGER AND ASSOCIATES

PERSONNEL AND MANAGEMENT SERVICES

Services for all units of government:

Position Classification and Salary Plans

Retirement Systems

Personnel Ordinances and Regulations

Employee Selection and Evaluation

Administrative and Fiscal Surveys

An experienced senior staff for your use

309 Walnut St., Falls Church, Virginia

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION SERVICE

A Unique Service to Governments

- A record of more than three hundred successful personnel surveys and installations at all levels of government.
- Consulting services in all areas of governmental management.
- Pertinent publications in many branches of public administration.

1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois

"A LANDMARK FOR PROGRESS"

PERSONNEL RESEARCH FRONTIERS

By Cecil E. Goode

"RESEARCH" is the magic touchstone marking the way to progress in many fields today. Everywhere we see evidence of the gains that science and technology have made possible.

... But what's the story on research in the personnel field? Up to now, not many people knew the answers to questions like these—

WHO does most of the personnel research today?

WHAT is the significance of research findings?

WHY are governmental personnel research needs lagging?

WHO is financing most of today's research?

WHAT action program is needed for the future?

WHY should personnel people be more research-minded?

Aided by a Ford Foundation grant, the Public Personnel Association recently undertook a comprehensive survey to track down the facts . . . to find the "WHO," "WHAT," and "WHY" . . . to make the answers widely available. The survey was conducted by Cecil E. Goode, Editor of the journal *Personnel Administration*, and broadly experienced as a personnel executive and writer.

In *Personnel Research Frontiers* Mr. Goode presents his survey findings and recommendations for a program to produce and use more and better personnel research on governmental personnel problems. Those who reviewed the report in draft form have acclaimed it as a "landmark for progress."

If you're now in personnel work . . . if you're interested in looking ahead to the future . . . you'll want a copy for your professional library.

List price, \$3.50—Price to PPA members, \$2.50

PUBLIC PERSONNEL ASSOCIATION

1313 EAST 60TH STREET CHICAGO 37, ILLINOIS